1995

An Investigation of the Relationship between Biculturalism and Barriers Perceived by Hispanic Students in Higher Education

Lynn Ann Van Hoof Werner
Loyola University Chicago

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BICULTURALISM AND BARRIERS PERCEIVED BY HISPANIC STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO

THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND POLICY STUDIES

BY

LYNN ANN (VAN HOOF) WERNER

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

MAY 1995

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the members of my dissertation committee, Dr. Terry Williams, Dr. Philip M. Carlin and Dr. Rafaela Weffer for their professional assistance, encouragement and audacious support throughout this research project.

I wish to thank and dedicate this dissertation to my brother-in-law Eduardo Chong Garcia (deceased), my parents, four sisters, my children Ann Marie and Anthony, my step-daughter Rebecca, and most especially my husband Charles. I especially wish to thank my husband for his patience and understanding on the time commitment this dissertation required.

In acknowledgement for the cooperation from the universities used in this research, I would like to recognize: Sharon Gartner, Director of Institutional Research, Rebecca Guerra, Assistant Director of Admission and Steve Murphy, Dean of Students at Saint Xavier University; Rebecca Peredes-Alvin, Associate Director of Adult Admissions and Bill Smyser, Undergraduate Admissions at DePaul University; and Dr. Sandra Cook, Associate Dean of Mundelein College Division, and Angeles Eames, Dean of Multicultural Affairs, at Loyola University Chicago.

Thanks also to Sylvia Puente, Director of Research at the Latino Institute Chicago and Dr. Inez Bocanegra-Gordon, Associate Dean at City Colleges of Chicago. Without their expertise this dissertation content would never have become a reality.

I especially acknowledge Dr. Jari Hazard for helping me complete the open-ended and interview section of this research. Her undaunting encouragement to keep going were invaluable. I also with to thank Tammy Dee Jones for her dedication to my research, the formatting commitment and putting up with my questions and comments as this dissertation progressed. And lastly I wish to thank the Studio Specialties and Superior Fomebords team for their patience and for seeing me through this process.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Introduction

According to Justiz (1994), the American population is "changing in a variety of ways...our age, our skin color, our family size, our educational needs, our work habits, our political inclinations, and our culture" (p. 1). Demographic trends related to race and ethnicity that many have considered to be stable and predictable for generations are now undergoing enormous changes especially in the growth of non-white groups in America. Ethnic and racial minorities are being noticed, more than ever by educators, business men and women, and politicians because of the dramatic increase in numbers alone.

African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans and Native Americans, together number 61 million or 25% of the nation's population (Western Interstate Commission, July, 1991). The fastest growing of all the minority groups is the Hispanic population. By the year 2010, the Hispanic population will have reached 47 million, while African Americans will number 44 million (Hodgkinson, 1991); and at that point Hispanics will outnumber African Americans as the nation's largest minority group (Villa, 1994). By the year 2020 the Hispanic population is expected to double in size. In 20 years (2010), the Asian and Native American populations will also double. Immigration mainly from Asia and Central and South America over the next 30 years (1994 to 2024) will cause more population growth in the United

States than will native births. And, by 2050, it is projected that these groups will become America's majority populations (Edsall & Edsall, 1991). To ensure a healthy future for America and its culturally diverse populations well into the twenty-first century, serious economic, social, and educational barriers before the Hispanic population and other minority groups, must be recognized and removed. Vincente Villa, named the United States Professor of the Year (1993) by the Council for Advancement and Support of Education, said in discussing the fate of Hispanic students in higher education: "Considering that Hispanics will represent one quarter of this country's brain power by the year 2050, finding new ways to recruit and retain Hispanic students at the college level now is crucial to the future success of American society" (Hispanic Association of Colleges & Universities (HACU), February, 1994, p. 4).

Educators in the United States are becoming more and more concerned about the lack of educational attainment among minorities in America. According to the American Council on Education (Carter & Wilson, 1993), nationwide 44% of African American high school students and 43% of high school Hispanic students drop-out before graduating. In New York City alone Hispanic drop-out rates are as high as 80% and in Los Angeles they are over 50% (Peng, 1982; Rendon & Nora, 1987). Many of these high school drop-outs come from "low-income/poverty backgrounds, have attended mediocre schools, have no encouragement to stay in school and have inferior academic skills resulting from their elementary school training" (p. 80). In the city of Chicago, the drop-out rate is over 60% for high school students (Katsinas,

1989; Kyle & Kantowicz, 1992; Latino Institute, 1994; Olivas, 1990; Tinto, 1990; WICHE, 1993); and those students who do graduate are not adequately prepared for higher education.

This study was undertaken to identify the various cultural and other barriers that urban Hispanic students encounter at three private, religiously-affiliated, four-year universities in Chicago. Additionally, the study examines the possible relationship that might exist between a student's cultural orientation and the perceived barriers that prevent educational success in the university.

To implement this study, a survey instrument was designed, in part, by this researcher and mailed to 716 Hispanic students attending three universities in the city of Chicago. The survey sought information about each student's level of cultural orientation and his or her perception of barriers experienced as a student that make academic success more difficult.

A benefit of this research is its contribution to an awakening of the academy to the plight of the Hispanic student in higher education. A comprehensive examination of the barriers these students encounter in all aspects of higher education, from admissions, to academic advising, to the curriculum, to scholarships, to the faculty, and to the administration is crucial for implementing policy changes that will result in the removal of these barriers.

Madeleine Green (1989), editor of Minorities on Campus, has stated that "an educational experience that does not reflect the pluralism of our country and the importance of minority individuals and cultures is simply deficient" (p. 12). The

author is referring to the under-representation of Hispanic students and other minorities in higher education. Hispanic students face both academic and social barriers throughout all levels of their education. Because one deficient experience often builds upon another, Hispanic students can and do enter higher education with a lack of adequate preparation that hinders them from successfully completing their academic programs.

This study identifies obstacles encountered by Hispanic students as they participate in higher education. Additionally, the study aids in better understanding these obstacles and in developing educational policies and procedures that will help minority students achieve their own goals and become contributing members of society in the twenty-first century.

Demographic Changes

The Hispanic population in the United States is growing at a rapid rate. The National Education Association (NEA) reports that "the Hispanic growth rate is five times that of the general population" (1985, p. 9). National data reveal that in 1991, 8.6% of the total United States population (or, 21.4 million) were Hispanic Americans (U.S. Bureau of Census, Current Population Survey (CPS), March 1991). These data represent more than a 34% increase in the Hispanic population for the period 1980 to 1988 compared to only a 7% increase in the general population for the same time period (Valdivieso & Davis, 1988). Valdivieso and Davis (1988) suggest there are two key factors responsible for this increase, "heavy immigration and high birth rates" (p. 5). With these factors in mind, Census Bureau (1991) projections

indicate the Hispanic population will reach 11.4%, or 27.7 million people, in the United States by 1995. The Hispanic Almanac (1990) also projects the Hispanic population could reach 13%, or 34.8 million, in the United States by the year 2000. The Census Bureau (1990) reports that the Hispanic population by the year 2050 could reach as high as 23% or more than 60 million. This means that Hispanics, together with other minority groups, including African Americans, Asian Americans, and American Indians, will constitute 51% of the total United States population. At that point Hispanics would also outnumber African Americans. They are expected, by all projections, to be the largest, minority group in the United States by the middle of the twenty-first century. Whites will then be considered a minority. With this information available, an examination of Hispanic family values that effect student success in higher education help one to understand more clearly the plight of the Hispanic student.

Family Values

In Mexican-American families, educational values are shaped by the family's socioeconomic condition and the parents' levels of formal education in the United States (Delgado-Gaitan, 1992, p. 248). Parents, from poor economic backgrounds and low educational levels, possess a strong desire to have their children succeed in school, an opportunity that was not available to them. In order to lay a foundation for a positive emotional climate and family support leading to success in education these parents feel that: "education meant being considerate of others, showing kindness, respect for elders and their authority, and cooperation with the institution"

(Delgado-Gaitan, 1992, p. 506). Mexican-American parents make a strong effort to provide their young children with a supportive learning environment. Thus, an early educational foundation is highly valued by both the mother and the father in Mexican-American families.

Taking this information into consideration, however, statistics show that Hispanic families in large numbers are not sending their children to pre-school (Carter & Wilson, 1991), that would help in laying the foundation for a positive learning environment. This means that enrichment opportunities are lost for a vast majority of this rapidly growing population, due primarily to an apparent lack of information on available programs and parent inability to read or understand English (Quevedo-Garcia, 1987). The long term effect of these lost opportunities translates into high drop-out rates in secondary schools and later in higher education often resulting from inadequate instruction in elementary schools. These are more often than not underfunded, overcrowded urban schools (Flores, 1989; Kyle, et al., 1992; Solomon, 1988).

Educational Profile

The educational profile of this population, however, indicates that well over 40% of Hispanics do not achieve beyond an eighth grade education compared to less than 18% of all other Americans, including African Americans, Asian Americans, and Anglos (National Education Association, 1987). The high school drop-out rates, particularly in urban settings, for Hispanics are increasingly very high. One out of every five Hispanic students across the country who are sophomores will drop-out of

high school before graduation (Vining-Brown, 1987). The American Council on Education and the U.S. Census Bureau (1993) reports that 43% of Hispanic students drop-out of high school, and those who do graduate are not academically prepared for college. These figures represent a potential loss to higher education of almost half a generation of Hispanic youth.

In 1992, the high school completion rate for Hispanic men was 52% and 62.8% for women respectively. Those same percentages carry over into higher education with Hispanic women being the highest proportion of students registering for college. In 1992, Hispanics had their largest single-year increase in high school completion in 20 years (Carter & Wilson, 1993). However, they still trail behind African Americans and whites by large margins in overall completion rates. Carter and Wilson (1992), however, offer a glimmer of hope by reporting that from 1986 through 1995, the number of "Latino (public) high school graduates will increase by 52%" (p. 5). In one year (1992 to 1993), the high school completion rate for Hispanics increased to 57.3%. While the 1992 rate for Hispanics is highest since 1987, it is still 5 points below the high of 62.9% registered in 1985 (Carter & Wilson, 1993). It is, however, the beginning of an upward trend. Because the absolute number of Hispanics is increasing, more will graduate; however, the rate of graduation will still be low. On the other hand, the absolute number of white high school graduates will continue to drop by 10% through 1995 as the "zero population growth era" for this group nears an end (Carter & Wilson, 1992).

Data show that the low high school graduation rates of Hispanic youth continue to be an obstacle to improving the college going rate for Hispanics. Katsinas (1989) indicates that Illinois public schools have a high school graduation rate for Hispanic students of only 40%. This represents a drop-out rate of 60%, or a vast majority, of Hispanic youth who primarily attend schools in the city of Chicago. Katsinas maintains that "the school system does not meet the needs of the Hispanic students, and therefore, they leave early and are out on the street" (p. 43). Issues of underenrollment, high drop-out rates, illiteracy, immigration, poverty and the uneven quality of education for Hispanics warrant further discussion.

Orfield (1986) found, in his Chicago study of seven public high schools, that "fifty percent of the students in those high schools were Hispanic, and out of that number almost sixty percent were low-income students" (p. 43). He goes on to say "it is not surprising to find a higher rate of suspension, expulsion, and corporal punishment, as well as teenage unemployment and juvenile delinquency among Hispanic youths than for whites. Roughly 25% of Hispanics are enrolled two grades behind their classmates" (p. 43). Reasons given for this cataclysm are two fold: (a) the schools these Hispanic youths attend are located in poor neighborhoods with sub-standard educational programs, and (b) language inconsistencies in the classroom that began with inadequate bilingual preparation at the ground level (Orfield, 1988).

Evidence of being behind in grade levels for Hispanic youths contributed to an early drop-out problem. This occurred because of a racial and ethnic breakdown

found in Chicago, public grammar schools (Kyle, 1986). The author found barriers in gender, race, age, and poor reading and math achievement levels, that contributed to the high drop-out rates already seen at the sixth grade level.

An Aspira study (1983) indicated a major cause of drop-outs was "gang pressure and fear of violence" in the high school. Fifty-six percent of the male youths interviewed stated "they had been asked on school property to join a gang." More than half the respondents (N=200) of both sexes said they feared physical harm at school (p. 85). Kyle (1992), in a later review, stated that parents of these Hispanic students marched in the streets with an empty coffin that served to represent generations of children lost to the streets and that this action helped set the stage for Chicago's school reform.

Role Models

Several problems have contributed to these alarming findings in the elementary and secondary schools. One such problem is the lack of professional role models for Hispanic youth within the educational system. Hispanic teachers comprise only 2% of the national teaching force according to a 1990 report by the U.S. Department of Education. Along with shortages of Hispanic teachers are low numbers of Hispanic academic advisers and educational administrators. Without bilingual teachers and advisers who understand the Hispanic culture, these students are often "tracked" into lower academic areas. Many of those students unfortunately are told they cannot be successful in their educational pursuits (National Education Association, 1987).

There is also severe overcrowding in urban classrooms and a shortage of books, materials, desks and equipment for these students, especially in schools in the Hispanic community. Another major impediment parents of these students face in helping their children with schoolwork is their own limited English proficiency and low levels of education (Carter & Wilson, 1991; National Education Association, 1987, p. 11). Orfield's (1988) research on Hispanics in metropolitan Chicago schools found that even "the teachers were from much less competitive colleges," and the schools "lacked basic pre-collegiate courses (i.e., physics and foreign languages), and they had fewer counselors per thousand students than their white counterparts" (p. 29).

Similar to the situation in elementary and secondary schools, in higher education a major problem reported by Carter and Wilson (1991) is that there are too few Hispanic professors and administrators to serve as role models for Hispanic students. If Hispanic instructors are hired, they are often given temporary, non-tenure track assignments, isolated from other faculty, overwhelmed by a heavy teaching load, and often compensated at a much lower rate (Finkelstein, 1984; Gappa, 1984; Rodriguez, 1989). Figures indicate that in 1989, only two percent of all full-time college and university faculty positions were held by Hispanics (Carter & Wilson, 1992). Ten years earlier, 1.5% of full time faculty positions were held by Hispanics. In 1992, the proportion of Hispanic faculty appointments at independent four-year institutions is only 2.4%. These rates are deplorably low and inadequate to meet Hispanic student needs for role models.

Educational Attainment

In comparison to other under-represented groups, Hispanics are behind African Americans and Asian Americans in the amount of progress they have made in educational attainment according to a report of the Commission on Minority Participation in Education (American Council on Education, 1988). The rate of Hispanic students "ever enrolled in college" was 15.8% in 1990. This compares to 25.4% for African Americans and 32.5% for Anglos (American Council on Education, 1991).

The U.S. Department of Education Enrollment Trends (March 1994, p. 5), states that in four-year colleges and universities between 1982 and 1992, there was a 16.4% increase overall in Hispanic enrollment. The report revealed also that there was an increase of 35.8% for African Americans, 15.9% for Asians or Pacific Islanders, 2.3% for American Indians or Alaskan Natives, and 16.3% for nonresident aliens. Among white, non-Hispanics the increase was only 8.7%.

College and university graduation rates for minority groups, on the other hand, have been very low. According to Aguirre and Martinez (1993, p. 42), "The (Hispanic) group as a whole is greatly under-represented among recipients of bachelor's degrees in this country". According to the 1990 Census, the Census Bureau (1991) estimated only 10% of Hispanic students enrolled in higher education would complete their requirements for a baccalaureate degree. In 1983, the U.S. Census Bureau (1980 Census) estimated that only 8% of the Hispanic students enrolled in four-year institutions would graduate. Nationally, the U.S. Department of

Education (1993) reports African American students who graduated with a four-year degree in 1991 comprised 6.0% of all African Americans enrolled in higher education. Asian American students from that same report, graduated in 1991 at a rate of 3.8%. However, Hispanic students dropped to the lowest level nationwide graduating only 3.4% of Hispanic students enrolled in four-year institutions (1991). The primary reason for this decline appears to be financial (Justiz, Wilson, & Bjork, 1994). An explanation (of this trend) would be that Hispanics tend to seek out a job, the military, and/or short-term proprietary school training before they seek out higher education, because of the rising costs of four-year institutions.

The American Council on Education, in its twelfth annual report on Minorities in Higher Education, stated that between 1990 and 1991 Hispanic students who graduated with a bachelor's degree from Illinois institutions numbered 1,402 or 2.8% of the degree's awarded that year. In a 1993 Illinois State Board of Higher Education report, figures reveal 1,471 Hispanic students received their bachelor's degree. This is only slightly higher than the ACE report for 1991. In contrast, examining the African American and Asian American student population, Carter and Wilson (1993) found that 3,476 African American students, or 6.8% of all African American students enrolled in higher education in Illinois, completed their bachelor's degree in 1991. In the same year, 2,202 Asian American students in Illinois, or 4.4% of the Asian student population, graduated with a bachelor's degree. This evidence suggests that at least in Illinois, Hispanic students had the lowest four-year degree completion rates going all the way back to 1980 and including 1991. Despite the marginal

progress these students have made in higher education, there are many obstacles still facing Hispanic students who desire to succeed. "Reduced institutional and state student financial support, new and higher admission standards, and rigid enrollment caps threaten to undo much of the progress of the late 1980's at the very time Hispanics need to consolidate their gains" (Carter & Wilson 1991, p. 19). Higher education cannot afford to cut back support or limit access for these students. Efforts to improve four-year degree completion rates are essential as Hispanic students continue to face barriers in higher education.

Barriers

There are many reasons for the high drop-out rates of Hispanic students in higher education. The barriers placed before these students are often overwhelming. K.P. Cross (1981), in her book Adults as Learners: Increasing Participation and Facilitating Learning, discusses different types of barriers encountered by both traditional-age (18-24 years) and non-traditional-age (25 years and over) students as they attempt to participate in higher education. The Cross typology defines three types of barriers encountered most frequently in higher education: (a) Situational, (b) Institutional, and (c) Dispositional.

Situational barriers are "those arising from one's situation in life at a given time" (Cross, 1981, p. 98). Some examples of obstacles encountered specifically by Hispanic students that are considered situational barriers include lack of personal funds for tuition, books or child care. Transportation is often another situational barrier for Hispanic students whose homes are geographically isolated from

institutions of higher education. Another situational barrier Hispanic students encounter is their underpreparation for higher education, resulting from inadequate elementary and secondary schooling received in underfunded and overcrowded urban schools.

Institutional barriers "consist of all those (institutional) practices and procedures that exclude or discourage minority adult students from participating in educational activities" (Cross, 1981, p. 98). An example of obstacles encountered by Hispanic students in higher education that can be categorized as institutional barriers would be the times classes are offered (only during the day for example) and locations of classes that make access particularly difficult. Reliance on traditional admission standards (e.g., grade point averages and test scores) can be institutional barriers for these students as well. Not having Hispanic faculty or bilingual advisers who can serve as role models for the student may also be considered an institutional barrier. The low expectations many faculty have of Hispanic students can hinder their progress too.

Dispositional barriers are those "related to attitudes and self-perceptions about oneself as a learner" (Cross, 1981, p. 98). Obstacles encountered by Hispanic students that would be categorized as dispositional are low self esteem and lack of preparation needed to complete the work required. Feelings of inadequacy would be considered a dispositional barrier including students' perceptions of barriers they face in higher education. Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) expanded Cross' dispositional barriers into "psychosocial" barriers which include an informational category. An

example of the psychosocial-informational barrier would include situations where Hispanic students are "afraid they cannot keep up with the requirements of the class or peers and also a lack of awareness of what educational opportunities are available to them" (p. 89).

Biculturalism

For Hispanic students, being able to alternate between two cultures and at the same time attain success in a predominantly white institution is a difficult task, even for the best of students. Many Hispanic students find themselves caught between two cultures as they try to integrate their lives within a predominantly Anglo higher education institution and yet maintain their native Hispanic culture. Ramirez and Castaneda (1974) in their original research on Hispanic biculturalism, found that cultural identity assumes "that a student has a legal and moral right to remain identified with his/her own ethnic group, own values, language, home, and community as he/she learns of and accepts mainstream values" (p. 11). Ramirez (1983) further defined "biculturalism" to represent "Cultural Diversity" meaning the "right of each individual to be educated in his or her own life style" (p. 12). Problems arise in higher education when Hispanic students feel trapped or torn between two or more cultures. This can be exacerbated when Anglo administrators and faculty assume all Hispanic family values are culturally the same. In reality, individual Hispanic cultures can be as diverse as mainland verses island Puerto Ricans, rural verses urban Mexican-Americans, and/or the Latin American culture that supports its own independence from the others (Y. Nieves, personal

communication, September 1992). When Hispanic student needs are not meaningfully addressed in higher educational institutions, the term that best describes this is "institutional racism." This racism permeates the attitudes, habits, feelings, associations, and actions of teachers, counselors, administrators, and peers. These actions effect the lives and learning of these bicultural students more than realized and also effect their self-worth (Parish, 1993). Students from a Hispanic home have a special skills and knowledge and communicate in different languages. The values of the predominant Anglo cultural they are asked to adopt, more often than not, may conflict with their own (Trueba, 1989).

Hispanic students on college and university campuses across the nation face many Anglo-American cultural demands as they adopt a bicultural identity. For example, there are conflicting values between a woman's role in an Anglo society and the Hispanic society. If the Hispanic female student shows independence or assertiveness the machismo male family figure may reject her, instead of being proud of her aspirations. An illustration of this was highlighted in a December 1990 study conducted by this researcher (Werner, 1991) in a suburban community college center with female Hispanic students who had dropped out of college. One student in particular, who had dropped out, participated in the study to ask if someone could help her in getting re-enrolled in college without being dependent on her father for transportation. He would not let her take public transportation and could not see the value of her being educated beyond high school. From his viewpoint, it was more important that she work full time and not waste her energy on an education.

Negotiating the demands of two very different cultures is called biculturalism. M. Ramirez (1974, 1977, 1982, 1984) developed an instrument to measure the "biculturalism" experienced by Hispanic students who live within two distinct cultures. The author defined bicultural-multicultural individuals as "persons having had extensive socialization and life experiences in two or more cultures and participating actively in both" (p. 82). In addition, Ramirez and Castaneda (1974) state that "bicultural behavior is flexible and adjusts to student coping skills. As a result the student is able to make adjustments to a variety of different environments and life demands" (p. 82). Ramirez teamed up with Castaneda and Cox (1977) to measure the degree of bicultural identity in elementary school students. The results showed these students could perform effectively and comfortably in both cultures (p. 81).

Ramirez then followed up with further research with Cox and Garza (1980) to identify high bicultural-multicultural orientation versus low bicultural-multicultural orientation, using Mexican-American students who were considered to have a monocultural orientation to life on a campus of a public university (p. 82). From student interviews and observations a pool of items was generated. The instrument derived from this study was labeled the Bicultural/Multicultural Experience Inventory (B/MEI). This questionnaire was piloted and revised three times (Ramirez, 1984). It consisted of three parts: demographic-linguistic information, personal history, and bicultural participation. It was designed to determine whether the extent of one's biculturalism would accurately predict student adjustment in a bicultural society.

The first version of this instrument, before revisions, was called the "Life History Biculturalism Inventory Scale" (Gonzalez, 1978). In the process of testing, students were categorized as high biculturals if they were flexible enough to "fit" in both worlds successfully. Some students functioned successfully only in a monoculture and were categorized as low biculturals (Castaneda, Cox, & Ramirez, 1977; Gonzalez, 1978). "Low bicultural" success rates in a predominantly Anglo-oriented higher education institution were considerably lower than "high biculturals" (Flores, 1989; Gonzalez, 1978). The later revisions of the instrument were tested and reviewed by external consultants, and became known as the "Muticultural Experience Inventory Scale" (Ramirez, 1980) that determined a wide range of bicultural types.

For example, if a student associated primarily with Mexican-American friends adhered to traditional Mexican values, he/she would be considered a traditional bicultural. That means he/she scored toward the lower end of the scale and is more mono-culturally oriented. Individuals scoring at the high end of the scale were more Anglo-oriented and did not identify as much with their Mexican-American heritage. They were identified as atraditional biculturals. Students scoring in the middle range on the scale appeared to identify equally with both the Anglo and Mexican cultures. They were called balanced biculturals. Buriel (1984), Ramirez III (1974), Cox, Castaneda, and Ramirez (1977), and Garza and Widlank (1976) concurred with Ramirez (1984) through their own research that a Hispanic student identified as a balanced bicultural will attain greater success in higher education than either the

traditional or atraditional student. Success defined by these researchers is typically a student who has fulfilled undergraduate degree requirements and graduated from college.

The Hispanic student who is considered a "balanced bicultural" is a person who maintains traditional Hispanic values along with an Anglo orientation and is not threatened by either. This student also "maintains favorable attitudes toward the customs, beliefs, and values fostered by each group" (Lambert, 1977, p. 239). Balanced or high biculturals described by Ramirez, Castaneda, and Cox (1977), "possess interpersonal skills to facilitate intergroup contact, that could qualify them as ideal leaders in various types of ethnic heterogeneous settings" (p. 239). A Hispanic student considered traditional or atraditional will often experience feelings of insecurity or isolation that could prompt the individual to retreat from a social encounter on campus (Ramirez, 1984). Encouragement to continue with his/her education is necessary for the Hispanic student whether he/she is found to be traditional, atraditional, or a balanced bicultural.

Institutional Responses in Higher Education

Empowering the individual Hispanic student to take responsibility for his/her life through academic and social support programs can enhance career orientation and at the same time develop self-confidence. Academic support programs in higher education institutions help build needed academic skills and provide positive reinforcement. Social support programs can also help the Hispanic student become integrated with the institution. For example, Loyola University Chicago, working

closely with DePaul University and Saint Xavier University through the Hispanic Alliance, designs successful programs for the benefit of both students and the institution.

One of the organizations formed on campus at Loyola University Chicago to address Hispanic student needs is called the Latin American Student Organization (LASO). This organization consists of several committees, primarily social in nature, that work with Hispanic students who are enrolled in classes and desire to meet together as a group to share ideas. The mission of this organization is "to make any Latin American student entering the university feel comfortable in their (sic) institutional environment," (Arlene Casequin, personal interview, 6/11/92). A sampling of the programs offered under LASO include: lectures on stress management, leadership development, adult tutoring, job interviewing strategies and how to become competent in the use of computers.

An additional support program that Loyola University Chicago, DePaul University, and Saint Xavier University have instituted is the STARS program. This program encourages upperclass students to tutor freshmen and sophomores so they feel more secure with their academic work. A second program is the STEP program that has the goal to raise the academic skills of high school students (from Hispanic neighborhoods) to university admissions levels. DePaul University has also created a "step program" initiated in 1982 (Weffer, personal communication, February 1995). This program brings Hispanic, inner city high school students to the campus on Saturdays to attend classes for the purpose of improving their math and reading

knowledge in preparation for the ACT and SAT exams. This is accomplished through personal attention and positive reinforcement by Hispanic faculty and staff. The goal to pursue higher education thus becomes more attainable for these students. The results indicate that 95% of Hispanic students who graduate from this program go on to pursue a higher education degree either at a community college or a four-year institution (R. Weffer, personal communication, September, 1992).

The McPrep Program at DePaul University is an off shoot of the "step" program. It is a six-week, summer learning program geared for sixth-graders. It is based on a growing trend that focuses on the often-difficult, pre-adolescent middle-school years. It is intended to smooth the transition from middle school to high school, and give students the confidence and academic foundation for college. The focus is on math, science and computer skills, with art, music and social or career development skills as an added plus. Students from 10 Chicago public schools are selected. Most are from low income families, 60% are African Americans, 30% are Hispanic, and 10% are white students (Weffer, personal communication, February 1995). The program is funded through DePaul University and Ronald McDonald Children's Charities. It is an on-going summer program and as the students enter high school they join the STEP program, in preparation for college (Chicago Sun-Times, August 14, 1994, p. 6).

Another support program geared specifically to women was founded in 1981. It was called "The Hispanic Alliance" and was initiated between Loyola University Chicago, DePaul University, and Mundelein College to address the educational needs

of Hispanic women over the age of 25. Many Hispanic women wanted to pursue higher education but were unable to obtain support in predominantly Anglo-oriented institutions. These women wanted to become more upwardly mobile as many faced economic barriers within their communities. Higher education was their key to mobility and the Hispanic Alliance became their support. The title of the support program was called "Hispanic Women's Leadership Program." It allowed these women, through encouragement and support, to succeed in their academic pursuits. Statistics on the success of this program are very positive. It is still operational in 1992 and has expanded to include younger students. It is now titled "Hispanic Woman's Program" (A. Eames, personal communication, February, 1992; R. Paredes, personal communication, March, 1992).

Maintaining academic and social balance at pre-dominantly white institutions is a tremendous challenge for Hispanic American students. Support programs, both academic and social, are the key to Hispanic student success. Nunez-Wormack (1989), in a keynote address entitled The National Agenda for Higher Education into the 21st Century, concluded "the future of minorities lay wrapped in one important issue--EDUCATION. It remains central to our future as Americans" (p. 13). The author goes on to say that:

> If our generation is to deliver on its promise to Minorities to create a better world in the 21st century, it needs people who can reach beyond that which is already determined, that which is already predictable, that which can already be expected, and take the lead in creating new possibilities for the people who cannot for whatever reason reach for themselves. (p. 21)

Educators are beginning to address the needs of Hispanic students through a variety of support programs in higher education institutions. These programs are designed to fill a gap created by the lack of support for Hispanic students in elementary and secondary schools. Beginning steps are being taken to provide more Hispanic role models through faculty, support staff and administrators in higher education who can address both the academic and social needs of Hispanic students. With the increased growth of these programs the Hispanic student has a much better chance at success in higher education.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether a relationship exists in higher education between levels of Hispanic student biculturalism and Hispanic student perceptions of academic and social barriers affecting their success. Variables explored include age, gender, ethnicity, enrollment status and generational status.

Research Questions

Listed below are the research questions that have guided this research.

1. In what way does the level of biculturalism (traditional, balanced, or atraditional) compare between male and female Hispanic students?
2. To what extent does the level of biculturalism (traditional, balanced, or atraditional) compare among traditional and non-traditional aged Hispanic students?
3. Does the extent of biculturalism vary according to generational status?

4. Is there a significant difference in the level of biculturalism among Mexican, Puerto Rican, South American, or other Hispanic groups?
5. In what way does the level of biculturalism (traditional, balanced, or atraditional) compare between part-time and full-time enrolled Hispanic students?
6. In what way do perceived barriers (institutional, dispositional, or situational) differ between male and female Hispanic students?
7. How do perceived barriers differ between traditional and non-traditional aged Hispanic students?
8. Do perceived barriers (institutional, dispositional, or situational) differ among the first, second and third generation Hispanic students?
9. Is there a difference between the perceived barriers of Mexican, Puerto Rican, South American, or other Hispanic groups?
10. Do perceived barriers (institutional, dispositional, or situational) differ between the part-time student and the full-time student enrolled?
11. What relationship exists, if any, between the extent of Hispanic student biculturalism and perceived barriers to higher education attainment?
12. What specific types of support do Hispanic students report are most needed at their higher education institutions for their success?
13. What types of support do Hispanic students say they are currently receiving from their urban higher education institutions?

The next chapter will review the literature on barriers and biculturalism that have focused on the plight of Hispanic students and their educational attainment. Chapter III will describe the method used to implement this study using both quantitative and qualitative research procedures. Chapter IV presents an analysis of the quantitative data and Chapter V presents the qualitative data. The research conclusions and recommendations are found in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Overview

The review of the literature for this dissertation is divided into three sections, each focusing on a major variable investigated in this study. The first section addresses perceived barriers to success in higher education for Hispanic students. The second section reviews the research on biculturalism; and the third and final section reviews academic and social support programs that have been developed by higher education institutions specifically for Hispanic students.

Barriers to Success in Higher Education

Hispanic American students entering higher education face many different barriers that hinder their success. There are three broad types (Cross, 1981) of barriers confronted by these students in higher education. First, "situational" barriers could include a Hispanic student's lack of personal funds for tuition, books or child care. Another situational barrier could arise from the fact that Spanish is spoken at home and thus is a different language from the college classroom (Smith, 1989). A third situational barrier Hispanic students may encounter is their underpreparation for higher education, resulting from inadequate elementary and secondary schooling received in underfunded and overcrowded urban schools (Flores, 1989; Solomon, 1988; Kyle, 1992).

A second general type of barrier, according to Cross (1981), is "dispositional." An example would be low self esteem and/or the lack of motivation needed to complete the academic work. Feelings of inadequacy would also be considered a dispositional barrier. Often these students are "afraid they cannot keep up with the requirements of the class or their peers" in the classroom setting (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 89; Nunez-Wormack, 1989). Low self-esteem is often reinforced in the classroom when faculty members and peers do not appreciate that different cultures may be associated with different learning styles and that all students do not learn the same way. For example, there is a wide range in the integration of information a student experiences (Flores-Lew, 1993).

The third category of barriers Hispanic students can encounter in higher education is "institutional" in nature. Student-centered priorities in higher education institutions such as flexibility in course schedules, academic and personal counseling, mentoring, financial support, and networking opportunities are a concern for Hispanic students (Elliott, 1994, p. 45, 57). Institutional reliance on traditional admission standards (e.g., grade point averages) and ignoring student needs for minority-targeted scholarships are also considered to be institutional barriers (Hurtado, 1992, p. 545). Not having Hispanic faculty or bilingual advisers who are willing to challenge the students and serve as role models for them may also be considered institutional barriers (Elliott, 1994, p. 57). Solberg, et al. (1994), evaluated the relationship between acculturation, mental health, social support and stress on Hispanic student college adjustment. His findings indicated that academic and social stress and social

support accounted for 59% of the variance in college adjustment with academic stress being the strongest predictor (p. 235). The academic stress factor addressed "various school related issues including workload, performance, exams, deadlines, and balancing home and school responsibilities" (p. 234). The social stress factor addressed "one's connectedness to the academic community and includes issues related to living in the community, class participation, finding support groups, and peer and faculty relationships" (p. 235).

Situational Barriers

For the purpose of this dissertation, situational barriers are defined as "those arising from one's situation in life at a given time" (Cross, 1981, p. 98). Examples found in the literature include poor high school academic records and low social economic status (SES) (Astin, 1975; Elliott, 1994; Jones & Watson, 1990; Orfield, 1988 & 1992; Solmon, 1988; Wilson & Justiz, 1988). The absence of adequate financial support from the family is an added situational barrier (Carter & Wilson, 1990; Jackson, 1990; Maestas, 1981; Nora, 1987; Solberg, 1994; Tinto, 1987; Voorhees, 1985). The most difficult barrier to overcome for the traditional-aged, Hispanic student, according to Tinto (1987), is the lack of family financial support for his/her education. The family does not appear to understand or appreciate the necessity of a higher education when confronted with the cost of tuition in today's economic environment and the lack of financial support available.

The lack of family appreciation for the importance of higher education and poor language skills resulting from an inadequate primary and secondary education

are also considered situational barriers found in the research (Cavazos, 1985; Crocker, 1982; Macias, 1993; Padilla, 1987; Smith, 1989; Tinto, 1987). Studies of Hispanic adult students at urban universities by Hall (1986) revealed that Hispanic American women have relatively high role demands and more children than white women. This supports findings by Cross (1981) who found that child care responsibilities and, in turn, the lack of adequate study time, also act as situational barriers in higher education pursuits.

Chacon, Cohen, and Stover (1986) revealed in their study of Mexican American men and women that "domestic labor, or number of hours spent per week on child care, care of the elderly, cooking and cleaning, had a sharp, direct and negative impact on student progress" in higher education (p. 279). Vasquez (1984) investigated Chicanas (females) specifically and found that they spent 48.3 hours per week on domestic labor responsibilities as opposed to Chicanos (males) who spent 42.2 hours working domestically, whether they lived at home as an adult member of the family or on their own. Expectations and duties relating to family chores took precedence over education goals.

Another situational barrier in higher education, according to Coleman (1973), is that Hispanic students experience stress levels than higher income students (i.e., Anglo) often do not. The author defines stress as "adjustive demands made upon the individual" (p. 170). Three types of stress examined by Coleman (1973) are: frustration (arising, for example, from having to leave school because of lack of finances); conflict (parents insisting on one area of study while student prefers

another); and pressure (having received an inferior education in elementary and secondary school and being subjected to competition with students from highly rated schools and wealthier families). Low socioeconomic status of the Hispanic family was also found in several studies to have an adverse effect on student progress in higher education (Aguirre & Martinez, 1993; Astin, 1975; Flores, 1989; Gonzalez, 1978; Jones & Watson, 1990; Orfield, 1988; Tinto, 1987; Wilson & Justiz, 1988).

Cortera (1976) discusses how a mother's influence within the family environment can be an important variable for success in higher education. This influence consists of the informal power a mother has when she can point out to the father the importance higher education goals can have on their children's future financial status (Flores, 1989; Gandara, 1982, 1986; Gonzalez, 1978; and Vasquez, 1984).

Another situational barrier in higher education as perceived by Hispanic students involves generational status. First, second, or third generation American-born Hispanic students often have varying experiences in higher education. Research on family background indicates there can be a significant difference in educational attainment between generations (Duncan & Duncan, 1968; Sewell, Houser, & Wolf, 1980). Ortiz (1988) found that generational status and family background of the Hispanic student can be a major impediment to success in higher education. First generation Hispanics are more likely to come from disadvantaged families of recent immigrants (Orfield, 1992; Ortiz, 1988; and Padilla, 1985, 1991). Many of their parents left their homelands because of low socioeconomic status and a

desire for a better life. Second and third generations born in the United States often have a better economic start and have the opportunity for more education than their first or second generation parents. Ortiz (1986) found that "first generation Hispanic youth are educationally disadvantaged. However, second generation Hispanic youth have significantly higher achievements after controlling for family background, while third generation youth do not differ significantly from non-Hispanic white youth" (p. 43).

One reason that second generation Hispanic youth may do better educationally is because immigrant parents do more to encourage their children and hold higher expectations for them than non-immigrant parents. As a result, first generation mothers and fathers appreciate the value of higher education that encourages higher achievement among children in the second generation. This has a strong positive influence on educational success (Ortiz, 1986; and Padilla, 1987, 1991).

Other studies on the relationship of family background to educational attainment have focused on Puerto Rican students. One research study suggests that a father's "machismo" had a negative impact on the educational attainment of the first and (on occasion) the second generation student (Cooney, Rogler, Correale, & Ortiz, 1980). The second generation Puerto Rican student and almost always the third generation student had a greater chance for success in higher education than the first generation because he/she was encouraged by parents to exercise more individual freedom of choice regarding educational pursuits, whether that pertained to the individual institution or to a specific major.

Padilla (1987), in his book Puerto Rican Chicago, describes the history of discrimination felt by Puerto Rican families as they immigrated to Chicago for economic opportunity only to be subjected to racial prejudices and menial jobs after World War II. The "melting pot" concept they encountered was not a viable option for these families; so they focused on their cultural pride and ethnic heritage to overcome oppression as they settled in communities just north and west of the downtown Chicago area. The families of both first and occasionally second generation children were thus so proud of their cultural heritage that education was not a priority for the children. Because of the prejudices these families had encountered they did not want to subject their children to further discrimination therefore they did not encourage more education.

Hirschman's (1978) study of first generation Mexicans in Texas found significant relationships between the father's education and occupational status and students' education. Since the fathers' education level was lower upon arriving in this country, (3.6 years of schooling; p. 1189), his occupation level is also of a lower status. That is the result of his social economic origins and educational attainment (p. 1187), that effected his job potential. Therefore, his children (the respondents) also fall into the category of educationally disadvantaged, due to discrimination (p. 1198).

These studies (Hirschman, 1978; Olivas, 1986, Ortiz, 1986, Padilla, 1985, 1991) demonstrate that "parental characteristics have a stronger impact on the achievements of the first and third generation students, than on the achievements of the second generation students" (Olivas, 1986, p. 31). The second generation student

holds a unique place in the transmission of class position from generation to generation for two reasons: (a) personal characteristics of the immigrant parents who expect more from their children and give them encouragement and (b) because of the lower educational attainment of the immigrant parents and the level of education they obtained in their native country (Olivas, 1986, p. 44). Thus, several research studies reveal that success in higher education is related to the generational status and family background of the Hispanic student, specifically in Mexican and Puerto Rican families, and particularly in second generation students.

Dispositional Barriers

Dispositional barriers in higher education as defined by Cross (1981) are "those related to attitudes and self perceptions about oneself as a learner" (p. 98). An example is a lack of confidence in the ability to learn, or fear that one is too old to begin learning. Aslanian and Pollack (1983) and Diagle (1979) found that questioning one's own abilities became barriers in higher education especially for non-traditional-age students. Sherif (1982) studied mixed-gender interactions and found that men performed most tasks in higher education with greater levels of self-confidence than women. However, Smith (1989) maintains that women coming from single gender institutions had a much higher success rate in higher education with greater self- confidence than women graduating from mixed gender institutions. Geary (1988) found that teacher attitudes had both a positive and negative effect on women students' self-confidence that, in turn, affects their academic achievement. Geary also found that having a sense of belonging to the campus combined with

encouragement from faculty to participate in on campus experiences positively affects student self-esteem. Most students who come from a higher socioeconomic status perform tasks in higher education with a greater level of self-confidence than students from a lower socioeconomic status (Hurtado, 1992).

Studies focused on Hispanic women reveal that family experiences directly related to dispositional barriers in higher education are primarily due to the patriarchal family structure (Baca-Zinn, 1980; Loeb, 1980; Mirande & Enriquez, 1979; and Del Castillo & Mora, 1980). Hispanic women live in a culture that emphasizes cooperation, respect, and obedience to elders'; whereas, higher education seeks to develop independence, competitiveness and self-assertiveness (p. 134). "An educated Chicana becomes increasingly alienated from her culture. Education is considered unnecessary, superfluous and even wasteful" (Mirande & Enriques, 1979, p. 134). While she is found to be less submissive the loss of family support results in a greater need for institutional support to attain success in higher education.

Additional reasons for feelings of inadequacy were found by Vasquez (1984) in her research on Mexican-American women. For example, they consistently experience low levels of economic, educational, and occupational positions with little incentive for advancement. Therefore, they often feel disenfranchised by society (Vasquez, 1984, p. 270). Vasquez also reports that growing up, Hispanic women perceive that individuals who strongly identify with their mother are not entitled to be in control of their surrounding resources.

These dispositional barriers experienced by the Chicana woman will force her to continually question her individual potential for success whether through family, community, or educational institution. The pride a Chicana feels about her Hispanic heritage supersedes any achievement goals or desires she may set for herself. Therefore, the Chicana's potential for success in higher education may be limited by her own self esteem needs.

Munoz (1986) found that Chicana university women reported higher levels of stress than Chicano men or Anglo men or women. Causes of stress for these students included feeling guilty that they cannot work a full time job to help support their family because of educational goals or a complete lack of confidence in their academic and social capabilities. Another issue included having to juggle responsibilities of home and child care along with pursuing a degree and experiencing little support from the men in their lives.

In the Puerto Rican culture traditional sex role standards, where men are viewed as superior and women are subservient, present frustrating dilemmas for Puerto Rican women in higher education. For example, Soto and Shaver (1982) found that tension and anxiety, similar to that experienced by Mexican-American women, inhibited the Puerto Rican woman from becoming assertive in the traditional family environment. This led to conflict along with psychosomatic symptoms and depression. On the other hand, Padilla and Levin (1980) suggest caution in recommending assertiveness training for Mexican-American and Puerto Rican women.

Too much assertiveness may threaten the traditional family environment and then create greater tension and anxiety for the student.

Lauro Cavazos (1985), former Secretary of Education, has investigated the attitudes the Hispanic student brings to campus that can also serve as barriers. At a Texas symposium, the author attempted to explain Hispanic attitudes toward education that differ from the European immigrant values of the nineteenth century. He stated:

> Hispanics see things a little bit differently. Great numbers of new immigrants today are totally unacquainted with the real purpose of education. Many are from bonded cultures (European and Native American). They have roots both in the Third World and in the great European Renaissance of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Their roots are intertwined with those of the most daring of early explorers and with those of conquered masses. They come certainly with courage and hope, but their lifetime experience often has been the kind that shrinks vision and breeds hopelessness. Most needed, it appears to me, is the bolstering of their courage and encouragement of their hope. (p. 28)

Institutional Barriers

Institutional barriers as defined by Cross (1981) include those institutional practices and procedures "that exclude or discourage working adults (age 18-40) from participating in educational activities" (p. 98). These institutional barriers may evolve from educational practices both in the classroom as well as other campus settings. The "hostility some students experience coming from white faculty, non-Hispanic students and staff" at a predominantly white institution can be overwhelming (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991, p. 644).

Actual classroom experiences reported by Hispanic students have included "faculty members who humiliate Hispanic students in class, who have little tolerance of anyone who is not prepared the way they were, or who cannot be bothered with

people who need extra time during office hours" (Nunez-Wormack, 1989, p. 14). Examples of social barriers on campus would include denying membership to a student in a campus club or organization because he/she is Hispanic or the hostile climate Hispanic students are often subjected to by non-Hispanic students and faculty who send messages throughout the campus that Hispanics are not capable of succeeding (Jones & Watson, 1990; Nunez-Wormack, 1984; Padilla, 1987; Smith, 1989; Taylor, 1985). Another reported example involved a staff member telling a Hispanic student who is desperately in need of financial help that a campus job is not available to him/her because "all positions are filled" when indeed two positions were still open (Denham, 1985, p. 30).

The climate experienced by Latino students in the classroom has a strong impact on their learning capabilities and self esteem needs (Flores-Lew, 1993, p. 180). Conflict can arise when the students' cultural values are not the same as the values of the faculty member who fails to include minority perspectives in teaching the class (Rendon, 1989). Contrary to some faculty views, all students do not learn the same way, so educators must not only be retrained regarding learning style differences but, identify the learning style for each student and then, together with the student, help him/her attain the learning goals each has set.

Institutional barriers involving hostilities and negative attitudes of both faculty and staff toward Hispanic students have been found on campuses across the country in many research studies (ACE, 1990; Cavazos, 1985; Chronicle of Higher Education,

1988; Flores-Lew, 1993; Marzano, 1992; Orfield, 1988; Padilla, 1987; Pascarella & Beal, 1982; Smith, 1989; Solberg, 1994; and Wilson & Justiz, 1988).

Solberg (1994), in a study of Hispanic student stress in higher education, reported three distinct sets of stressors students experience. One is academic stress including workload, performance, exams, deadlines, and balancing home and school responsibilities; a second relates to social stress that includes one's connectedness to the academic community (i.e., class participation, finding support groups, and peer and faculty relationships); and a third is financial stress that includes having enough money for tuition, books, or supplies.

In studies conducted at Western Illinois University (Allen, Bem, & Niss, 1990), gender and race bias was found. Male professors, along with some female professors, reacted more positively to male students within the classroom than to female students. And both male and female professors tend to acknowledge white students' comments, but are relatively critical of minority students' remarks (p. 608). Walleri and Peglow-Moch (1988), using case studies developed for non-traditional-aged Hispanic students on community college campuses, found that "tracking" is still practiced with these students. Standardized surveys are given to academically underprepared Hispanic students, and the result is they are often placed in a lower-level vocational track. For upward movement out of this track, an important prerequisite for academic success is the development of problem solving abilities. This can be accomplished for both men and women, says Jones and Watson

(1990) by teaching higher level skills that, unfortunately, are not taught much in high schools or the vocational curriculum.

Often faculty attitudes act as institutional barriers to Hispanic student success in higher education as evidenced by tracking and standardized testing. A way to combat this growing problem is the use of Hispanic role models on campus. O'Donnell (1987) clearly sees the need for higher levels of education and training for Hispanic women and role models can assist in that process. Orfield (1986, 1987, 1988, 1992), in his research on Chicago Hispanic students, found without role models these students experienced greater isolation on campus that impeded their success.

In the Puerto Rican community, negative feelings toward education seemed justified. These students felt and experienced prejudice from administrators and teachers beginning in primary education and continuing through their secondary schools. Adjustment in educational settings has been very difficult for this particular Hispanic population for decades. They have been treated both subtly and overtly by faculty, staff and peers in all white institutions as second class citizens. Puerto Rican students alone experienced a 60% high school drop-out rate in Chicago public schools consistently over the last ten years (Kyle, 1984; Lucas, 1971; Padilla, 1987; WICHE, 1991).

Puerto Rican students were often denied access to institutions of higher education until the early 1970's when a few students began organizing clubs and student unions to bring attention to their specific needs on the campus. This was the

beginning of getting the attention of college administrators to recognize Puerto Rican students as a distinctive group on campus with unique needs beginning with: (a) instituting a curriculum relating to their heritage, (b) addressing student admission and retention program needs, and (c) by hiring faculty of the same ethnic background to teach their classes and administer their programs (Padilla, 1987, p. 184; Smith, 1989, p. 67).

In summation, barriers encountered by Hispanic students in higher education have a definite impact on their potential for academic success. Again the three types of barriers experienced by these students stem from (a) their family background, (i.e., generational status) or other barriers that are described as "situational" barriers; (b) Attitudes that are identified as a "dispositional" in nature, (i.e., self-esteem); or (c) "institutional" barriers where the campus administration, faculty, and/or staff are insensitive to the needs of students of diverse cultures. An additional student educational challenge revolves around the concept of "biculturalism," (i.e., adapting to an Anglo culture while still maintaining Hispanic traditions). The term "biculturalism" and its characteristics are presented in the following section.

Biculturalism Research

Fitting into "mainstream" American society has been a difficult transition for all ethnic groups, but especially the growing, culturally diverse Hispanic population. Their background warrants a broader understanding as their cultural heritage is threatened by trying to fit into the so-called American "melting pot." America has always been considered a "melting pot" where all are blended or assimilated together

to become homogeneous Americans. Achieving a balance between the Hispanic culture and the Anglo culture appears (from research studies) to result in greater student success in attaining a higher education degree. The term "biculturalism" is a good descriptor for this "balancing act". The Jewish philosopher Horace Kallen as early as 1915, took the "melting pot" theory and argued that "cultural pluralism" in American society was a more heterogeneous concept that respects "a commonwealth of cultural diversities" (p. 116).

Living within the boundaries of two diverse cultures is a difficult adjustment for a student. However, studies (Buriel & Saenz, 1980; Flores, 1989; Gandara, 1982; Garza & Widlack, 1976; Ramirez, 1974, 1977) show that educational achievement tends to be greater among Hispanic students who maintain close ties to their primary culture and, at the same time, adapt to the Anglo culture. This balance maintained between two distinct cultures is called "biculturalism" (Ramirez, 1974). The following describes the research involving the characteristics and value of biculturalism.

Childs (1943) studied Italian Americans in New Haven, Connecticut, and Madsen (1964) studied Mexican-Americans in the southwest. Both researchers found that these ethnically diverse groups experienced frustration when caught between their two cultures. As a result, they suffered alienation, rejection and constant mental stress (Gonzalez, 1978). Stonequist (1937) developed the concept of the "marginal man" who was characterized as frustrated, insecure, and indifferent when confronted by two cultures and who did not feel like an accepted member of either. Bicultural

research with Hispanics (Ramirez, 1977) reveals that a student equally "balanced" between the Hispanic and Anglo cultures has a greater chance for success in higher education. Conversely, research (Gonzalez, 1978; Ramirez, 1977, 1986) also shows that a lack of adjustment even to either the Anglo culture (atraditional) or Hispanic culture (traditional) also lowers chances for success in higher education.

In investigating the positive aspects of multiple cultural experiences, Fitzgerald (1972) conducted research on the cultural behaviors of native Maori university students with the European culture in New Zealand. His findings reveal that the Maori tribe (aborigines) adopted much of the European (Pakeha) traditions, yet maintained their native cultural beliefs and values. The author found that these students "undergo a dual acculturation" (p. 49). That is, through interviews and tests he found that their strongest source of identity was loyalty to their historically-rooted Maori (micro) culture. Yet, he also found that they manifested cultural behaviors in the macro- culture (European Pakeha) through an ascribed identity not an achieved one (Fitzgerald, 1972, p. 54). The cultural behavior of the Maori students was assumed to be a one-way process of "Europeanization" which leads to cultural assimilation. However, Fitzgerald (1972) contends that the Maori emphasized their social life (relations) as being "in process" rather than a closed situation that maintains the status quo. Therefore, culture was treated as a "component" of the total structure in New Zealand society, without being the entire system (as it is in the United States). Fitzgerald (1972) proposed a model of "biculturalism" from his research that indicated living within the two cultures gave the Maori university

students more flexibility and freedom of choice in their socialization process on campus.

Garcia (1981) also found that coming from a Spanish-dominated home and being fluent in Spanish had a positive association with better grades. Hispanic students from 13 colleges and universities in Texas were studied to examine the effects of family and cultural maintenance on academic achievement in college. Data showed that students who were fluent in Spanish earned better grades because they were integrated both socially and academically (Garcia, 1981, p. 10).

Ramirez (1977), who developed a bicultural inventory scale from his research, stated that "bicultural individuals are more comfortable functioning in more than one culture and are more likely to be confident, self aware, tolerant of diversity, and psychologically resilient than people who identify with only one culture" (p. 3). According to students who are bicultural, they have greater flexibility between learning and social behaviors on campus as well as off campus (Fitzgerald, 1972; Ramirez & Castaneda, 1974).

The Bicultural/Multicultural Experience Inventory Scale (B/MEI), an instrument designed by Ramirez, Castaneda, and Cox (1977), measures the degree of bicultural identity in Mexican-American college students. This instrument, a personal life history inventory later revised by Gonzalez (1978) and used by Vasquez (1978), elicited responses to a number of factors that were related to cultural identity (Flores, 1989). The instrument addressed language preferences, social group performances, early childhood contact with the culture, and friendship patterns (Gonzalez, 1978, p.

11). Items in the B/MEI survey instrument measure: (a) the degree of biculturalism; (b) frequency of intra- and inter-ethnic friendships; (c) inter-ethnic attitudes; (d) functioning in a variety of situations regardless of ethnic setting; and (5) acceptance of both Mexican-American and Anglo values (Flores, 1989, p. 141; Vasquez, 1978, p. 61).

Bicultural "types" are also distinguished by this instrument. For example, students scoring toward the lower end of the continuum are closer to the more traditional Hispanic culture and prefer to socialize with fellow Mexican-American students (Gonzalez, 1978). They are called traditional biculturals. Students taking this survey who score toward the high end of the continuum prefer to identify more with the Anglo culture. They are called atraditional biculturals (12). Those students scoring in the middle of the continuum, those who identify with and are comfortable with both cultures, are called balanced biculturals (Flores, 1989, p. 141; Gonzalez, 1978, p. 12).

Research using the Bicultural/Multicultural Experience Inventory with Chicana women at the University of Texas at Austin (Vasquez, 1978) and with Mexican American college women in Texas (Gonzalez, 1978) both revealed that the balanced bicultural student had a much higher success rate (i.e., able to graduate with a degree) in higher education. The traditional bicultural student followed and the atraditional bicultural came in last in degree attainment.

Validity and reliability tests have been conducted on this instrument according to Ramirez (personal communication, February 1992). The survey instrument was

distributed to 1046 subjects to test the internal consistency of each item with each other item. This provided an index of reliability of the scale. The results indicated a statistically significant high level of reliability and internal consistency (.79 and .68 respectively) (Ramirez, 1977). Further studies were conducted with life-history interviews of 129 subjects taken from the original 1046 subjects. These students were from Texas and California and were identified as balanced, atraditional, or traditional biculturals. Results showed that 125 of the 129 subjects had been accurately identified as either balanced, traditional or atraditional by the B/MEI Instrument (Ramirez, 1984).

Hispanic student biculturalism has been shown to be an important concept that promotes undergraduate student success in attaining educational goals and a rich, full life, that is well integrated in society. The challenge has been to successfully achieve a "balance" between the two cultures without succumbing to the "melting pot" or to complete assimilation. The following section addresses student support programs in higher education that lead to Hispanic student success.

Student Support Programs in Higher Education

According to Jaramillo (1990), Hispanic student success in higher education is directly related to institutional and organizational programs that provide support services for these students. Some of the most successful programs that provide this necessary support have been U.S. Department of Education Retention Programs (TRIO);Educational Opportunity Programs (EOP); and Options Through Education Programs (OTE).

The TRIO-Special Services Program (a federally funded program designed to address retention problems in higher education) specifically addresses Latino student access and retention problems in colleges and universities (Rivera, 1982). Orfield (1992) describes this program as one of the first federally funded programs connected with Upward Bound instituted in the late 1960's resulting from the federal government's "War on Poverty". Initially this program was designed to help potential college students. Its mission was to identify capable but poorly prepared students and provide them with special instruction, summer programs on college campuses, and help in applying for college. There were three components of the TRIO program: (a) talent search, which is directed toward elementary/secondary education students demonstrating potential for college; (b) upward bound, which is the link between high school students and colleges; and (c) student services/support program, which councils students that do not have the required GPA during their senior year of high school and guides them through admittance procedures. It was successful on many campuses but funding has never been enough to address more than a small group of eligible students. To be eligible a student must be from a low income family ($12,000 minimum for a family of two), first generation, and have a physical or learning disability. This program needs to be expanded through continued federal funding flowing to programs deemed effective.

In comparison, Projecto Pa'Lante, a university-funded program at Northeastern Illinois University, focuses on the recruitment and retention of Latino students from Chicago inner-city schools. This program has successfully increased

Latino enrollment nearly ten-fold over the ten-year period from 1972 to 1982 (Rivera, 1982). As a result, Northeastern has become the university in Illinois with the highest proportion of Hispanics enrolled (Donna Rudy, personal communication, December 15, 1992). As a result of Northeastern's success, University of Illinois-Chicago (UIC) has instituted a Latino program as well and it has proven to be very successful (Padilla, 1991).

Educational Opportunity Programs (EOP's) are another group of special programs that focus on access and retention of specially admitted students. "The major goals of EOP are to provide access to higher education for low-income minority students and to provide support services throughout their undergraduate education" (Clewell & Ficklen, 1987, p. 9). Some of the support services provided are career counseling, personal counseling, and on-campus tutoring. Criteria for admission into the program include: (a) parents of students must have less than a baccalaureate degree; (b) students must have a GPA of 2.0; (c) students must be residents of the state; and (d) students must have completed eight semesters of college prep English and four semesters of college prep math. Other factors considered are test scores, motivation and potential to succeed (p. 10).

The Options Through Education (OTE) program is a six-week residential program during the summer. It is designed for 40 to 50 pre-matriculating freshmen who are selected as high-risk minority students with potential for success (Clewell & Ficklen, 1987). These students' test scores are lower than other applicants, but their high school grades are good and recommendation letters are strong. Those who are

selected for this program receive full funding for four years. However, students must sign a contractual agreement "to attend all classes, participate in study halls, meet regularly with an adviser, and seek help when experiencing difficulties" (p. 7).

Another summer program is Project Enrichment, an Access 2000 project funded by the National Science Foundation. Loyola University Chicago through the Multicultural Affairs Department sponsors such a program. A component of the program is called English for the College-Bound. The program is designed to interest urban minority students in scientific fields and has been considered quite successful (Y. Nieves, personal communication, September 9, 1992).

A process for redesigning educational systems "from image to implementation" was presented in 1992 at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Kniep). An Education 2000 project, it was designed to link students and schools with the global community in Redwood Falls, Minnesota and Yonkers, New York. It was based on the development of a global view of education that is student-centered with an emphasis upon local empowerment.

Loyola University Chicago also sponsored the first Annual Multicultural Affairs Conference in conjunction with Unity in Diversity Week in March 1993. The goal of the conference was to "foster collaborative, innovative, and interdisciplinary approaches to serving students of diverse backgrounds" and to build bridges of communication and understanding across departmental lines (A. Eames, personal communication, February 18, 1993). The event was considered a tremendous success and was well attended. Unity in Diversity week is a series of programs, workshops

and festivities designed to celebrate all of the racial, ethnic, and religious cultures represented at Loyola University.

The Guided Studies program is another program conducted by higher education institutions targeting student populations experiencing academic difficulty. For example, the University of Illinois-Chicago (UIC) program is called the Latin American Recruitment and Educational Services Program (LARES) and guides Latino applicants through admissions and financial aid application processes. This program also provides counseling for the students as well as their parents as part of a total university effort to promote student success. It involves testing and placement as well as career and academic counseling. Further, an orientation course for new students is available in addition to developmental and tutorial services (Walleri & Peglow-Hoch, 1988).

Other model programs in higher education institutions include MESA/MEP (The Mathematics, Engineering, and Science Achievement/Minority Engineering Program) that was initiated at American River College in the California Community College System (1989). This program recruits Hispanic students and provides assistance, encouragement, and enrichment programs to help them succeed in the fields of math, engineering, science, and computer science (Lee, et al., 1990). The MESA/MEP program is designed to serve as a bridge between high school MESA programs and university MEP programs for students who attended a community college before enrolling in a four-year college or university. Included in the program

are scholarships, awards, and honors; leadership development; enrichment programs; and support services/supplies for students.

An honors program at Rockland Community College (New York) uses specially designed courses and faculty mentors to help minority students excel. The aim of the program is to help Hispanic students in particular to transfer to high quality universities for their junior and senior years of college. About 150 students are involved in the program each year and "admissions officers at prestigious institutions acknowledge that Rockland's honors program makes its graduates stand out" (Chronicle of Higher Education, September 9, 1992, p. A34). Students are required to take 7 out of 30 specially designed honors courses at Rockland and maintain a 3.5 grade point average. Each is assigned a faculty member and is required to complete a year of independent study--working on a research paper or studying abroad in conjunction with the program. Socially, these students are expected to be involved in out-of-class activities for better, well-rounded experiences.

At California State University Long Beach, Ramirez (1986) conducted research on a program targeted at the retention of the Latino university student through the Student Affirmative Action Outreach Program (SAA). The project consisted of interviews with Latino university students through the SAA program. The researcher found the outreach students from the SAA program had unrealistic expectations, a lack of clear and attainable personal goals, and were generally alienated from the institutional mainstream. Working with these students in their communities through

the SAA program was a tremendously challenging and rewarding experience in getting them "back on track" (Ramirez, 1986).

At three, urban comprehensive universities in the city of Chicago, an Hispanic Alliance Consortium was formed in 1982 that is still in place at the time of this study. It included Loyola University Chicago, DePaul University, and Mundelein College (an all woman's college prior to its merger with Loyola University Chicago). Today Saint Xavier University has been added to the consortium. The objective of this consortium was to work closely with Hispanic adult women (mainly first generation) in their communities and through their churches to encourage them to pursue an education for upward mobility. Regular meetings of consortium leaders are held to address common issues regarding these students across the various campuses. One product of the Alliance is the Latin American Student Organization (LASO). LASO consists of several social support committees that work with Hispanic students. The LASO mission, according to the vice president of LASO, Loyola University Chicago, is "to make everyone comfortable in their institutional environment," (A. Casequin, personal communication, June 11, 1992). Some of the programs offered under LASO include discussions on stress management, leadership development, and how to become competent users of computers.

Another program is the Hispanic Alliance Career Enhancement program (HACE), which is a local (Chicago based) mentoring program for Latino college students. The goal is to develop a network for young Hispanic professionals. This program provides free resume services to Hispanic students and has a data bank

clearinghouse for jobs, according to Rebecca Guerra, HACE coordinator, at Saint Xavier University (R. Guerra, personal communication, August 25, 1992).

Other successful programs that these urban, four-year institutions have initiated and funded include the STARS and STEP programs. Project STARS (Students Together Are Reaching for Success) is a comprehensive support services program, (funded in part by the State of Illinois) that includes peer mentoring, peer tutoring and scholarships. This is done through the campus Learning Assistance Center at Loyola University Chicago. It is called the Peer Counseling Program where upperclass students work on a daily basis with freshmen and sophomores to help them with writing term papers, solving math problems, and addressing reading deficiencies.

The STEP program at DePaul University, Northwestern University, University of Chicago, and University of Illinois involves working with high school students aspiring to college enrolled at minority-dominated high schools in the city of Chicago. This program is designed to have students participate in a mentorship program for juniors and seniors in high school. These university students go into the high schools and encourage the upper class students to come to the university on Saturdays or selected evenings for special assistance in preparation for the ACT/SAT exams. The encouragement, support, and academic assistance given by the college students and their mentors help the Hispanic high school students develop his/her self confidence and academic skills in preparation for college admissions. That in turn boosts enrollment for all the participating universities where the high school students experienced their first, positive, academic higher education encounter.

Recently (1994) DePaul University hosted a six week summer program for Hispanic, African American and white sixth grade students to help them develop higher math and reading skills necessary for college. The program will be an on-going summer enrichment program sponsored through DePaul University and the Ronald McDonald's Childrens Charities (Chicago Tribune, July 13, 1994).

A growing number of student support programs seems to exist in most university settings across the country. Unless prospective students are motivated to seek out information to help themselves and their families, or a mentor goes out into the communities to work one-on-one with the prospective students, these programs may become the institutions' best kept secret. National as well as local role models can be tremendous assets for higher education institutions. With the increasing demographic trends, minorities, educators, community leaders, business owners, and motivated students can help one another reach for success.

Barriers to educational success hinder student learning. These barriers need to be continuously addressed with a variety of approaches in order to promote student success in higher education. The reality of today's changing student body is that they are "packaged differently" says Reverend John J. Piderit, S.J., in his inaugural address as president of Loyola University Chicago. He adds that "they must be handled with a variety of newly developed traditions than other generations before them" (Inaugural Address delivered April 9, 1994, Loyola World, p. 3).

Chapter III that follows, describes the methods used in this research. Chapter IV presents the results from a survey sent to students; while Chapter V presents the

results of interviews with a sample of these students. Finally, Chapter VI presents research conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Population and Sampling

The population for this research study consisted of 345 Hispanic university students, attending three diverse, religiously-affiliated universities in the city of Chicago. The predominant cultural backgrounds of these students include Mexican, Puerto Rican, South American, Central American, Cuban, or "Other" Hispanic ethnicities. The students include both traditional-aged (18-24 years) and non-traditional-aged (25 years or over) who are either part-time or full-time enrolled in the institutions. The cooperating institutions used for this research were DePaul University, Saint Xavier University and Loyola University Chicago.

A total of 1,612 names and addresses were generated by the three participating universities for all undergraduate Hispanic students enrolled as of Spring 1993. For both Loyola University Chicago and DePaul University, a random sample consisting of 40% of the total number of Hispanic students enrolled at these two institutions was selected from these two institutions. This sampling method resulted in a total of 597 students being selected. Because the number of Hispanic students at Saint Xavier University numbered only 119, the researcher decided to use the total population as the sample from this institution. Thus, a total of 716 Hispanic students were selected for this study.

Instrumentation

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship, if any, between levels of Hispanic student "biculturalism" and perceived barriers to success in higher education. A survey instrument developed by the researcher contained four distinct sections (see Appendix D).

Demographic Data

The first section (Part I) of the instrument sought demographic data regarding age, gender, parent's place of birth, cultural identification, number of siblings, generational status, language proficiency as well as language spoken at home by parents and student, educational level of parents, family income level, part-time or full-time enrollment status, and length of time lived in the United States.

Biculturalism Data

The second section (Part II) collected data needed in ascertaining the extent of biculturalism found among the students. The assessment of student levels of biculturalism was conducted by using a modified version of the Multicultural Experience Inventory Scale (Ramirez, 1990) that was originally developed by Ramierz, Castaneda, & Cox (1977) (see Appendix A for letter of permission). The data identify on a continuum three levels of biculturalism. On one polar end of the continuum is the "traditional" bicultural student whose primary focus is the maintenance of his/her Mexican, Puerto Rican, or Latin American heritage. In the middle of the continuum is the "balanced" bicultural student who identifies with the customs, beliefs, and values fostered by both the Hispanic and Anglo cultures

(Lambert, 1977). On the opposite polar end of the continuum is the "atraditional" bicultural student who identifies mostly with an Anglo orientation. In previous research, both traditional and atraditional bicultural students were found to experience greater barriers in attaining their academic goals in higher education than the balanced bicultural students (Flores, 1989).

The biculturalism inventory used in this study contains 21 items that have been examined by Hispanic faculty, advisors, and counselors from the three urban institutions participating in the survey. The biculturalism inventory has several different categories of responses. The following provides three examples of the survey items in this section.

At present, the majority of my closest friends are:
a. _____ All Hispanic
b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e. _____ Mostly Asian American
f. _____ Mostly African American

I attend social gatherings that are predominantly Anglo in nature:
a. _____ Extensively
b. _____ Frequently
c. _____ Occasionally
d. _____ Seldom/Never

When I write personal material (letters, cards) I write in:
a. _____ Spanish
b. _____ Mostly Spanish
c. _____ Spanish and English, about equal
d. _____ Mostly or all English

The original biculturalism instrument (Ramirez, 1974, 1977), that the survey for this research was based, was geographically-based since it was developed in Texas

where the population was basically Anglo and Hispanic. In the metropolitan area of Chicago, the population is much more diverse in its ethnicity and, therefore, this diversity needed to be reflected in the biculturalism section of the survey instrument. The Hispanic population, because of its ethnic diversity in Chicago, was categorized using the following groups: Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central American and Latin American. Furthermore, because of the diversity of many Chicago neighborhoods, changes were also made that included adding categories for African American, Asian American, and American Indian origins.

Dr. Ramirez, in a phone interview (personal communication, April 21, 1992), described his original inventory as "a 77-item instrument that assesses the extent of an individual's experience with and attitudes toward two cultures (Anglo and Hispanic)." Ramirez, Garza and Cox (1980) in their research on biculturalism, described a bicultural individual as "being more flexible or adaptive situationally in determined appropriate ways" (p. 98-99). If a student is flexible and adaptive in his/her educational environment, he/she has a much greater potential for success. Dr. Ramirez tested the reliability of his instrument by correlating the first section (demographic/personal history information) against the second section (multicultural participation or behavior responses). He interviewed Mexican-American adolescents in Texas and California regarding the development of bicultural identities and found there was minimum conflict and problems in establishing these identities with the students. An Alpha reliability rating of .79 (Ramirez, M., & Castaneda, A. (1974)

was produced from the original research. During his phone communication (1992), he gave this researcher permission to adapt his instrument for this study.

Garza and Lipton (1982) also validated the Ramirez instrument by correlating the bicultural scale with student cognitive behaviors. Flores (1989) also validated a modified version of the instrument used by Ramirez, Garza, and Cox (1980) in a survey to undergraduate Hispanic college students at Oklahoma State University and the University of Oklahoma.

A reliability test of significance on this researcher's survey was conducted on the biculturalism scale instrument using a Cronbach's Alpha. There were 343 valid responses responding to the questionnaire. The Alpha reliability was .9110 for the biculturalism scale. Thus, the data in this study reveal reliability to be much higher than that found by Ramirez (1974, 1977).

Barriers

The third section (Part III) of the questionnaire asks students to identify the level of concern they have with selected barriers in higher education. Categories of obstacles include: dispositional barriers (individual attitudes/feelings), situational barriers (background/family impediments), and institutional barriers (institutional practices/procedures) as designated by Cross (1981). This list was validated by a panel of several experts who work closely with Hispanic students at urban institutions in the City of Chicago. Examples of questions asked relating to barriers, using a four-point Likert scale response ("1" Always, "2" Often, "3" Seldom, or "4" Never a Major Concern) are as follows:

Situational Barrier:

a. Having enough quality study time at home to complete my weekly assignments.
b. Having enough writing skills to complete college level reports.
c. Having enough money to pay tuition, books and fees.

Dispositional Barrier:

a. At times, feeling I cannot compete academically with other students.
b. Feeling discouraged due to length of time it takes to get a degree.
c. Staying motivated to get a degree because I feel I have to work twice as hard as anybody else.

Institutional Barriers:

a. Availability of Hispanic faculty to serve as academic advisors and role models.
b. Receiving scholarships to help pay tuition.
c. Experiencing isolation and loneliness on campus.

Reliability testing on the barriers section in this instrument produced a .9134 Cronbach's Alpha. Breaking this down into specific types of barriers, Dispositional barriers were found to have a Cronbach's Alpha of .8318. Situational barriers had an Alpha of .7823, and Institutional barriers had an Alpha of .8630.

Open Ended Questions

The fourth and final section of the questionnaire (Part IV) included a short qualitative component. This section was added after recommendations were received from four students during a pilot of the survey. There are two open-ended questions pertaining to (a) campus programs that have met Hispanic student needs and (b) specific programs the institution should provide to support Hispanic students as they pursue their degree. This section also asks whether the respondent is willing to be personally interviewed (45% said yes).

Pilot

The survey instrument was piloted in March, 1993, using four Hispanic university students who were not included in the final study (see Appendix B). The students for this pilot were selected from Loyola University Chicago because of their accessibility to the researcher. The purpose of the pilot was to assess the organization and clarity of the instrument by making sure the questions asked were easy for the student to understand and respond to.

It took the four students between 20 and 25 minutes each to complete the questionnaire. After completion, the students discussed their reactions with the researcher. They suggested that the section on biculturalism use clearer terminology when describing specific ethnic groups. For example students asked what the phrase "other ethnic minorities" included? They suggested terms that include all ethnic groups represented on campus. Another suggestion discussed was to include an open-ended question on the survey identifying student concerns about barriers they have experienced that were not addressed in the questionnaire. These points were well taken and included in the final draft of the instrument.

After the pilot study was conducted with the students, the Dean of Multicultural Affairs at Loyola University Chicago, submitted comments from her staff and other Hispanics who work with the Hispanic students on campus. Some of those comments suggested that when addressing Puerto Rican respondents one should designate categories for being raised on the island or raised on the mainland. They recommended that respondents be asked if the campus is a welcoming place or not.

Finally, they recommended that questions for the non-traditional-aged respondent be included (i.e., if you have children what language is spoken at home?). These suggestions were helpful and resulted in the questionnaire becoming more relevant for the urban respondents.

Data Collection Procedures

A packet of information was mailed to 716 student participants including the following: a cover letter explaining the project (Appendix C), the printed survey instrument (Appendix D), a letter of support from the Hispanic Alliance Coordinator on the student's respective campus (Appendix E, F, & G), and a consent form (Appendix H). On the final page of the survey instrument, students were asked if they would be willing to be interviewed and whether they would like a copy of the survey results. A stamped, return envelope was also included with each mailing packet with the researcher's name and address. The first mailing of the packets was sent in late April 1993, via first class mail. The number of packets sent from each institution was 262 from Loyola University Chicago, 335 packets from DePaul University and 119 packets from Saint Xavier University. Thus, the total number of questionnaires mailed was 716. Each questionnaire was number coded for appropriate follow-up procedures.

Approximately three weeks following the first mailing of the survey packet (producing a 25% return rate), a post card (Appendix I) reminder was sent. It contained a short note of thanks for completing the questionnaire along with a request for an immediate response if it had not been completed and for a phone call to the

researcher if the student had misplaced the questionnaire. Fourteen phone calls requesting another survey instrument followed, increasing the return rate by an additional 5%. After considering the total survey return rate of 30% up to this point, a third set of student mailing labels were requested from the three cooperating institutions. A follow-up cover letter was generated (Appendix I), and a third mailing consisting of a complete packet (including the new cover letter) was sent in mid-June 1993. The original support letters from the respective institutions were included in the packet along with a consent form. The time taken for this mailing was worthwhile since the students were now on summer break and appeared to actually have more time to fill out the survey. The exact number of responses that came from the third mailing alone was 131 or 18%. The return rate from the entire mailing was 48%, with 345 usable questionnaires returned out of 716 sent.

Student Interviews

The last two survey questions, that were designed to generate open-ended responses from the students, became the focus of three separate group interviews. A random sample of five Hispanic students who responded to the survey from each of the three campuses was selected for this process. These interviews were conducted by the researcher after initial data analyses were completed on the survey results. Five interview questions were generated focusing on student perceptions of barriers and what the institution needed to do to meet their most pressing concerns. The five questions asked of all students during the interviews were:

1. What are the top two or three barriers that are hindering your degree completion on your campus? Please take a few minutes to mentally put them in rank order.
2. Have you experienced any hostilities or discrimination (either racial or gender biases) toward Latinos on your campus by fellow students or professors? Any favoritism toward male vs. female students in class or in grading?
3. Are there any role models on your campus with whom you feel comfortable communicating? Has isolation among your peers been a problem for you?
4. Does your institution have special programs that are helpful and supportive of your needs? (PLUS/DALE/LEAP)
5. Is your family supportive of your educational endeavors?

To enhance this researcher's ability to listen and absorb student responses, all interviews were tape recorded and later transcribed with the students' permission. A campus bookstore gift certificate ($5.00) was given to each student who participated in the personal interviews on campus to say "thank you" for their additional time and effort.

Data Analyses

Several statistical procedures were used to analyze the data from the questionnaire. Frequency distributions on all survey items were tabulated for the entire group of respondents (see Appendix J), as well as separate frequency

distributions for each institution. The descriptive statistics included means and standard deviations for all survey items. Reliability tests were conducted on survey items found in both the barriers and biculturalism sections of the survey. Analyses of variance tests were conducted on the biculturalism and barriers data. Separate Anovas were also conducted to test the relationship between the dependent variables (i.e., barriers and biculturalism), and the independent variables age, ethnicity, gender, generational status, and part-time versus full-time enrollment.

Chapter IV, following, provides the quantitative results for the survey respondents.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

A major objective of this study was to examine the possible relationship of Hispanic student levels of biculturalism to actual barriers these students experienced in a university setting. Of particular interest was the location of the research. Most of the previous research on this topic was conducted at public universities located in the west and southwestern parts of the United States. This study concentrated on Hispanic students attending three urban, religiously affiliated universities located in Chicago.

This chapter provides the survey results of the research conducted in three areas: (a) Demographic results, (b) Biculturalism results, and (c) Barriers results.

Demographic Profile of Respondents

As was reported in Chapter III, the survey instrument was mailed to a total of 716 undergraduate Hispanic students enrolled in three private, religiously-affiliated universities located in the large metropolitan area of Chicago. After several follow-up attempts, a total of 345 usable responses were received thus producing a 48% rate of return. According to Dillman such a return rate is considered quite respectable given limitations on mail surveys in general and the student population contacted in this study (1978, p. 197).

Table 1 provides selected demographic characteristics for the total group of respondents (N=345). The respondents were primarily women (69.7%) and of traditional college student age [18-24 years, (68.2%)]. According to the American Council on Education, the number of Hispanic women (primarily traditional-aged) enrolled in all institutions of higher education showed an increase of 10.7% for the 1991-1992 school year and a gain of 42.4% since 1988. Hispanic men (primarily traditional-aged) show an increase of 9.2% for 1991-1992, and an increase of 37.7% since 1988. Overall, since 1988, Hispanic students have posted an increase in enrollments at American higher education institutions of 40.6% (ACE, 1993, p. 12). It was expected that the vast majority (71.3%) of the respondents would report that they were enrolled in a course of full-time study at their respective university and that they were never married (80.8%) as these characteristics are typical of traditional-aged undergraduate students in the 1990's.

Table 1.--Demographic Profile of Respondents

Profile Characteristics	N	%
Gender		
Female	239	69.7
Male	104	30.3
Age		
18 to 24 Years	234	68.2
25 Years and Over	109	31.8
Enrollment		
Full-Time	239	71.3
Part-Time	96	28.7
Area of Residence		
Urban	223	68.4
Suburban	79	24.2
Rural	24	7.4
Birth Place		
U.S.A.	259	75.5
Mexico	56	16.3
South America	19	5.5
Puerto Rico Island	6	1.7
Cuba	3	0.9
U.S.A. Birth Place		
Chicago	204	78.8
Illinois (not Chicago)	31	12.0
Other States (not Illinois)	24	9.3
Generational Status		
Immigrant	81	23.9
Citizen	18	5.3
First Generation	177	52.2
Second Generation	49	14.5
Third Generation	14	4.1
Marital Status		
Never Married	277	80.8
Married	49	14.3
Divorced	14	4.1
Separated	2	0.6
Widowed	1	0.3

Table 1 also reveals that the vast majority of these Hispanic student respondents were born in the United States (75.5%) and that of this group most were actually born and raised in the Chicago metropolitan area. The place of birth for the remaining 24.4% of respondents was Mexico, South America, Puerto Rico, and Cuba in that order. Among the respondents, a slight majority (52.2%) reported they were first generation citizens of the United States. Thus, they are the children of parents who immigrated to the United States. Only 18.6% of the respondents reported that they were either second or third generation citizens. The category labeled "Citizen" referred to only 5.3% of the respondents. The "Citizen" group was for students born in the United States but raised primarily on the island of Puerto Rico. This was very confusing for the students and not clearly understood. Given the midwestern urban setting for these respondents and the reported increase in immigration to this area in recent years, it is not surprising to find that 23.9%, almost one-fourth of the entire respondent group, labeled themselves as "Immigrants". The U.S. Census Bureau (1991) reported that between 1980 and 1990 the Hispanic population increased dramatically by 42% in the State of Illinois or from 636,000 in 1980 to 904,000 in 1990. In the Chicago metropolitan area alone, the Hispanic population included 893,000 in 1990 (U.S. Census Bureau, 1991; State of Illinois Board of Education, 1992).

Table 2 describes self-reported data about respondent ethnicity, preference for an ethnic label, and the ethnic composition of the neighborhood or local community which respondents call home. While respondents checked all the options on the

survey regarding ethnicity, the vast majority (61.6%) revealed that they were Mexican American. The second largest ethnic group was Puerto Rican at 12.9%. When given Chicano, Hispanic, and Latino as choices for their preference of an ethnic name, 60.9% selected Hispanic. Two items on the survey also sought to determine the predominant ethnic and cultural composition of the local neighborhood in which the respondents resided while attending the university. In one item, the students could select more than one response and their choices clearly reflect the wide diversity that appears to exist in many of the students' neighborhoods. However, 224 of the 333 respondents (30.1%) did report that the predominate culture in their local communities was Mexican/Mexican American. Ninety-eight respondents (13.2%) also identified the Puerto Rican culture as predominant in their neighborhood. In an interesting contrast, a separate survey item reveals that 46.4% of the respondents report living in a neighborhood that is "Mostly all Anglo" while 28.4% reveal that their neighborhoods are mixed "Hispanic, Anglo, and African American", the remainder of the respondents (25.1%) lived in "Mostly" or "All Hispanic" neighborhoods. According to the Latino Institute (1994), one-third (64%) of the total Hispanic population, predominanty Mexican and Puerto Rican, live within the Chicago city limits. The total Hispanic population in Chicago is 535,315.

Table 2.--Respondent Ethnicity

Ethnic Characteristics	N	%
Ethnic Identity		
Mexican/American	210	61.6
Puerto Rican Islander	44	12.9
South American	35	10.3
Central American	12	3.5
Cuban/Cuban American	9	2.6
Other	31	9.1
Preference for Ethnic Name		
Hispanic	206	60.9
Latino	61	18.0
Chicano	2	0.6
Other	69	20.4
Ethnic Cultures Found in Local Neighborhoods and Communities[a]		
Mexican/Mexican American	224	30.1
African American	117	6.7
Puerto Rican-Island/Mainland	98	13.2
Central American	50	6.7
South American	42	5.7
Cuban/Cuban American	27	3.6
Other	185	24.9
Ethnic Composition of Neighborhood		
Mostly or All Anglo	157	46.4
Hispanic, Anglo, and African American	96	28.4
Mostly Hispanic	67	19.8
All Hispanic	18	5.3

[a] Multiple Responses total 743, representing 333 valid cases

Table 3 presents respondent survey data regarding their use of language at home and in other aspects of their daily lives. Only 4.6% of the Hispanic students report that they speak Spanish only, while 15.4% report that they speak English only. The remaining students (80%) reported that they speak both Spanish and English. One would certainly expect that 100% of the respondents would be able to speak

English given they are all enrolled in an American university, and this is predominantly true in this study. However, Collison (1994), in the Chronicle of Higher Education, states that institutions with a high Hispanic enrollment are finding that faculty need to teach Spanish to native Spanish speakers for the development of student writing and communication skills beginning in the elementary schools. Many students know enough of the Spanish language to be able to speak it but not how to write it grammatically correct. With English, the students have taken several English courses and can write it but do not speak it as much, particularly at home.

Table 3.--Respondent Language Usage

Language Characteristics	N	%
Language Spoken		
English	185	54.1
Spanish	154	45.0
Other	3	0.9
Language Most Comfortable With		
English	231	67.5
Spanish	34	9.9
Both	77	22.5
If Married, Language Spoken at Home		
English	66	82.5
Spanish	14	17.5
Language Used When Writing		
Mostly or All English	252	73.5
Spanish and English Equally	77	22.4
Mostly Spanish	5	1.5
Spanish Only	9	2.6
Fluency of Spoken Spanish		
Very Fluent	166	48.7
Somewhat Fluent	115	33.7
Basic Words	41	12.0
Understand but Can Not Speak	14	4.1
No Spanish	5	1.5

The student responses also reveal that 67.5% are most comfortable with the English language and only 9.9% are most comfortable with Spanish. However, 22.5% of the respondents report being most comfortable with both English and Spanish. Almost three quarters of the students (73.5%) report that when they write they use "Mostly or All English" and 22.4% use a combination of Spanish and English. Even though a small proportion of these students report they are comfortable with Spanish, just over eighty percent (82.4%) reveal that they are either very or somewhat fluent in spoken Spanish. Given the large proportion of first generation and immigrant status students, the high percentage of respondents who are fluent in spoken Spanish is not surprising.

Table 4 moves beyond individual respondent information and begins to provide a picture of family background. This table reports on the educational level of the parents of the respondents. While the largest proportion of fathers and mothers had completed elementary school only, the data clearly reveal that mothers on the whole have higher levels of education than do fathers. According to Flores (1989) mothers are the most influential in the family in pushing their children into getting a college education. In the current study, 40.0% of mothers had either some high school education or had a high school diploma; whereas, only 32.7% of the fathers had this level of education. However, at the post-secondary level 24.0% of the fathers had attended or completed one or more undergraduate-level degrees; whereas, for mothers, this figure was slightly less at 23.5%.

Table 4.--Parent's Level of Education

Education Characteristics	Father (N=333)		Mother (N=340)	
	N	%	N	%
Elementary School	126	37.8	110	32.4
Some High School	46	13.8	55	16.2
High School Graduate	63	18.9	81	23.8
Some College	57	17.1	50	14.7
College Graduate	23	6.9	30	8.8
Advanced Degree (Masters, Ph.D.)	18	5.4	14	4.1

Table 5 reports on family income levels for the respondent group according to dependent/independent status. About one-third of the respondent group (N=111) reported that they had "independent" status in revealing their family income. The size of this student cohort corresponds very closely to both the number of students 25 years and over (N=109) and those who are enrolled part time (N=96). Within the independent group, there was a fairly even distribution of family incomes across all categories ranging from a low of $10,000 or less to $56,000 and above. The largest proportion of respondents (24.3%) in the independent group had incomes between $21,000 and $30,000. The smallest proportion of students (8.1%) reported an income level between $31,000 and $40,000. Among the dependent students living at home, there seems to be a more even distribution of family income levels across five of the six income categories. Since these respondents are all attending moderately expensive private universities, one might expect to see a greater proportion of higher income profiles. However, that is not the case with this sample. One is just as likely to find a very low income student as a high income student.

Table 5.--Respondent Income by Dependent Status

Income Characteristics	Respondent Married, Independent Status (N=111)		Respondent Living at Home, Dependent Status (N=227)	
	N	%	N	%
Below $10,000	17	15.3	10	4.4
$10,000 - $20,000	18	16.2	38	16.7
$21,000 - $30,000	27	24.3	44	19.4
$31,000 - $40,000	9	8.1	37	16.3
$41,000 - $55,000	23	20.7	36	15.7
Above $56,000	17	15.3	38	16.7
Do Not Know	0	0.0	24	10.6

Biculturalism Results

The second section of the survey instrument sent to the Hispanic undergraduate students in this study contained 21 items adapted from a biculturalism scale first developed by Ramirez (1974, 1977) and later modified by Flores (1989). The survey items sought to ascertain the extent that the students in this study identified primarily with either a "monoculture" or single culture (Hispanic or Anglo); or who identify with both, Anglo and Hispanic, cultures simultaneously. In this latter case, these students were called "balanced" biculturals.

Table 6 provides summary data for all 343 respondents who completed the biculturalism section of the survey. On a Likert scale of "1" to "4", where a "1" represents full identification with a "Traditional" Hispanic culture and "4" represents full identification with an "Atraditional" or Anglo culture, the overall mean for the 343 respondents was 2.82 (SD .538). The overall mean score actually falls in the

middle of the Likert continuum thus establishing that this group of undergraduate students were "Balanced" biculturals (i.e., identifying with both the Hispanic and Anglo cultures simultaneously) in their self-reported cultural identification.

Table 6.--Biculturalism Mean Scores for All Respondents

Bicultural Categories	Mean	SD	N	%
Overall Biculturalism Mean	2.83	.538	343	99.4
Traditional[a]	1.85	.119	15	4.4
Balanced[b]	2.55	.265	207	60.3
Atraditional[c]	3.43	.284	121	35.3

[a] An individual achieving a score between 1.00 and 1.99 is viewed as "Traditional" on the overall biculturalism scale.

[b] An individual achieving a score between 2.00 and 3.00 is viewed as "Balanced" on the overall biculturalism scale.

[c] An individual achieving a score between 3.01 and 4.00 is viewed as "Atraditional" on the overall biculturalism scale.

Reliability tests of significance were conducted on the biculturalism scale using the Cronbach's Alpha. There were 343 valid cases. The Alpha statistic was computed to be .9110. The reliability test conducted by Ramirez (1977) was .79, thus the data show reliability in this study to be much higher.

Table 6 reveals that very few of the respondents, 4.4% (N=15), actually could be labeled as "Traditional" biculturals ($\bar{X}$=1.847; SD .119). On the other hand, 60.3% of the respondents, the largest group, (N=207) could be classified as "Balanced" biculturals ($\bar{X}$=2.547; SD .26) and the second largest group of respondents, 35.3% (N=121), were found to be "Atraditional" biculturals ($\bar{X}$=3.431; SD .28). The largest number of respondents who fell into the Balanced category

seems to be clearly responsible for the composite mean of 2.82 for the entire group of 343 respondents.

Tables 7, 8, and 9 provide additional biculturalism data for all 343 respondents categorized by the five major independent variables examined in this study: Gender, Age, Enrollment Status, Generational Status, and Ethnic Identity. Table 7 reveals the typical "profile" for the respondents according to whether their mean biculturalism scores categorized them as Traditional, Balanced, or Atraditional. There are some interesting differences among the five independent variables according to bicultural category. First, the proportion of men among the respondents decreases as they become more Atraditional or Anglo oriented. Second, the proportion of respondents self-identifying themselves as either South American or Other increases dramatically as they become more Atraditional. Likewise, the proportion of Puerto Rican respondents declines significantly from 26.7% (Traditional) to 5% (Atraditional). Similarly, the proportion of Second and Third Generation students increases dramatically as they become more Atraditional in their cultural orientation. Finally, there does not appear to be much difference among the three cultural categories when Age and Enrollment Status are considered.

Table 7.--Demographic Profile of Respondents by Biculturalism Categorizations[a]

Demographic Characteristics	Traditional[b] (N=15)		Balanced[c] (N=207)		Atraditional[d] (N=121)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Gender						
Male	6	40.0	64	30.9	34	28.1
Female	9	60.0	143	69.1	87	71.9
Ethnic Identity						
Mexican	11	73.3	125	61.0	74	61.2
Puerto Rican	4	26.7	34	16.6	6	5.0
South American	0	0.0	22	10.7	13	10.7
Other	0	0.0	24	11.7	28	23.1
Generational Status						
Immigrant	6	40.0	53	26.0	22	18.3
Citizen	1	6.7	13	6.4	4	3.3
First Generation	7	46.7	109	53.4	61	50.8
Second Generation	1	6.7	25	12.3	23	19.2
Third Generation	0	0.0	4	2.0	10	8.3
Age						
18 to 24 Years	10	66.7	147	71.0	77	63.6
25 Years and Over	5	33.3	60	29.0	44	36.4
Enrollment						
Part Time	4	26.7	60	29.9	32	26.9
Full Time	11	73.3	141	70.1	87	73.1

[a] The overall biculturalism mean is 2.828 (SD .538). An individual classed as "Traditional" achieved a score between 1.00 and 1.99 on the overall biculturalism scale. An individual achieving a score between 2.00 and 3.00 is viewed as "Balanced" and an individual scoring between 3.01 and 4.00 is "Atraditional".

[b] The overall biculturalism mean for "Traditional" individuals is 1.847 (SD .119).

[c] The overall biculturalism mean for "Balanced" individuals is 2.547 (SD .265).

[d] The overall biculturalism mean for "Atraditional" individuals is 3.431 (SD .284).

When mean biculturalism scores are examined for statistically significant differences according to Gender, Age, and Enrollment categories, no difference is found between the sexes, regardless of age (under 24 years or 25 years and over), or

part-time or full-time enrollment status. In fact, the mean scores for these variables cluster very closely to the overall Balanced mean score for all respondents ($\bar{X}$=2.83, Table 8; Figures 1, 2, 3, 4).

Table 8.--Biculturalism Mean Scores by Selected Demographic Variables

Profile Characteristics	Mean	SD	N	%
Overall Biculturalism Mean	2.83	.538	343	99.4
Gender[a]				
Female	2.83	.544	239	69.7
Male	2.82	.537	104	30.3
Age[b]				
18 to 24 Years	2.80	.546	234	68.2
25 Years and Over	2.89	.517	109	31.8
Enrollment[c]				
Full-Time	2.83	.553	239	71.3
Part-Time	2.81	.489	96	28.7
Generational Status[d]				
Immigrant	2.69	.507	81	23.9
Citizen	2.67	.406	18	5.3
First Generation	2.82	.539	177	52.2
Second Generation	3.01	.551	49	14.5
Third Generation	3.31	.447	14	4.1

[a] There are no significant differences between biculturalism mean scores based on Gender.

[b] There are no significant differences between biculturalism mean scores based on Age.

[c] There are no significant differences between biculturalism mean scores based on Enrollment.

[d] $F=6.27$, $p \leq .0001$ Mean scores for Immigrants, Citizens, and First Generation respondents are significantly different from the mean scores for Second and Third Generation respondents on the biculturalism scale.

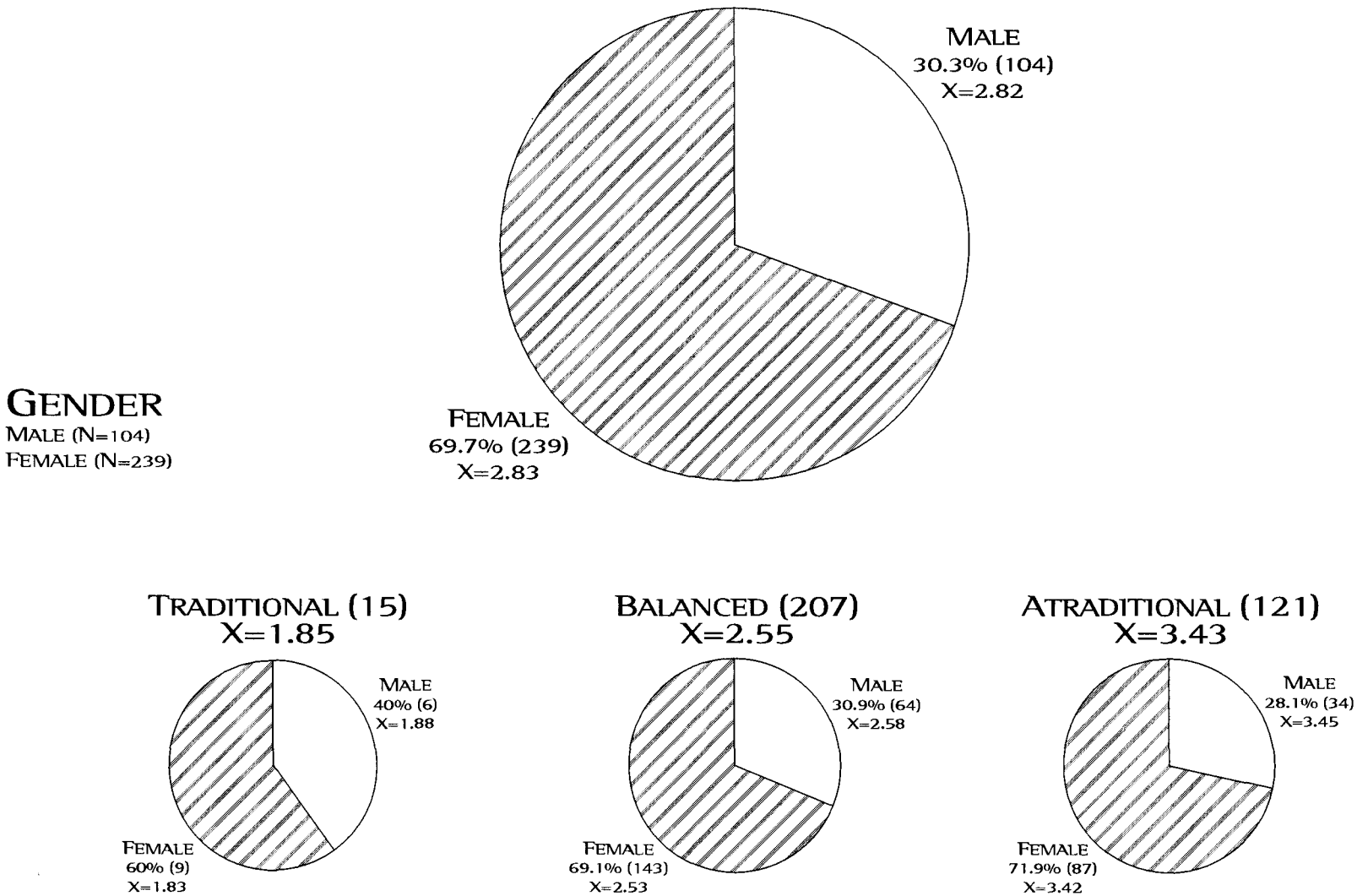


Figure 1. Biculturalism Mean Scores for All Respondents by Gender

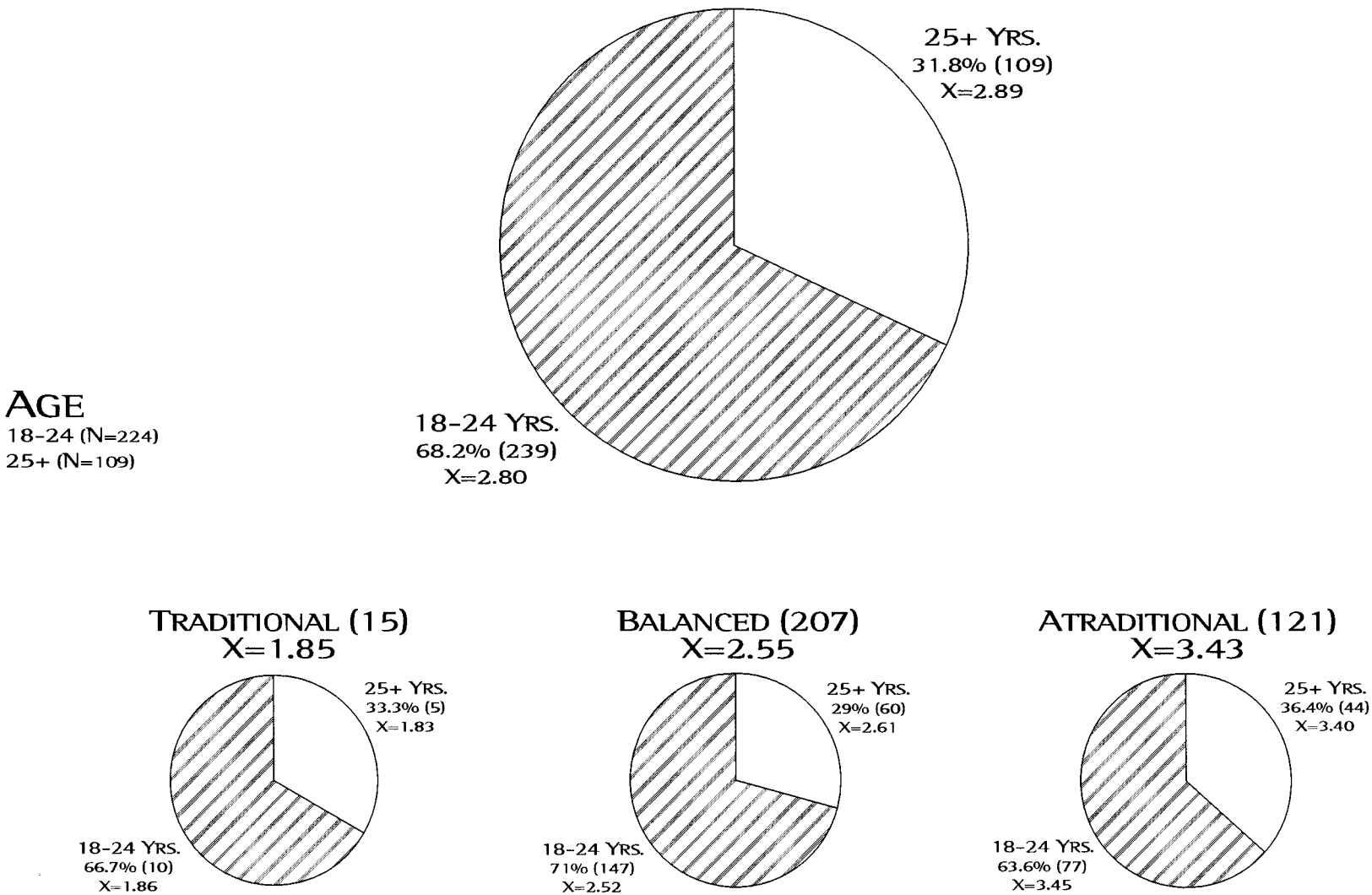


Figure 2. Biculturalism Mean Scores for All Respondents by Age

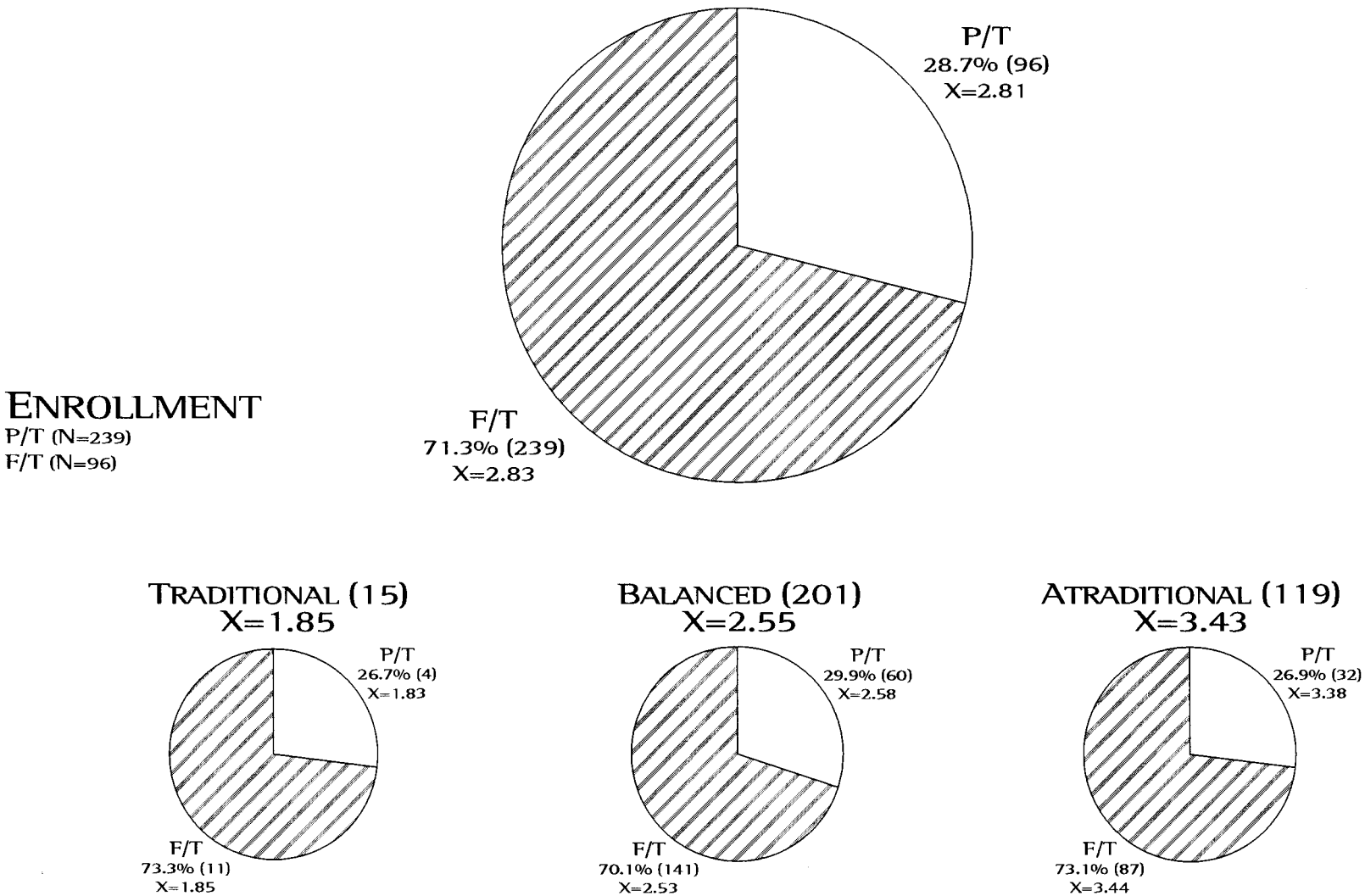


Figure 3. Biculturalism Mean Scores for All Respondents by Enrollment

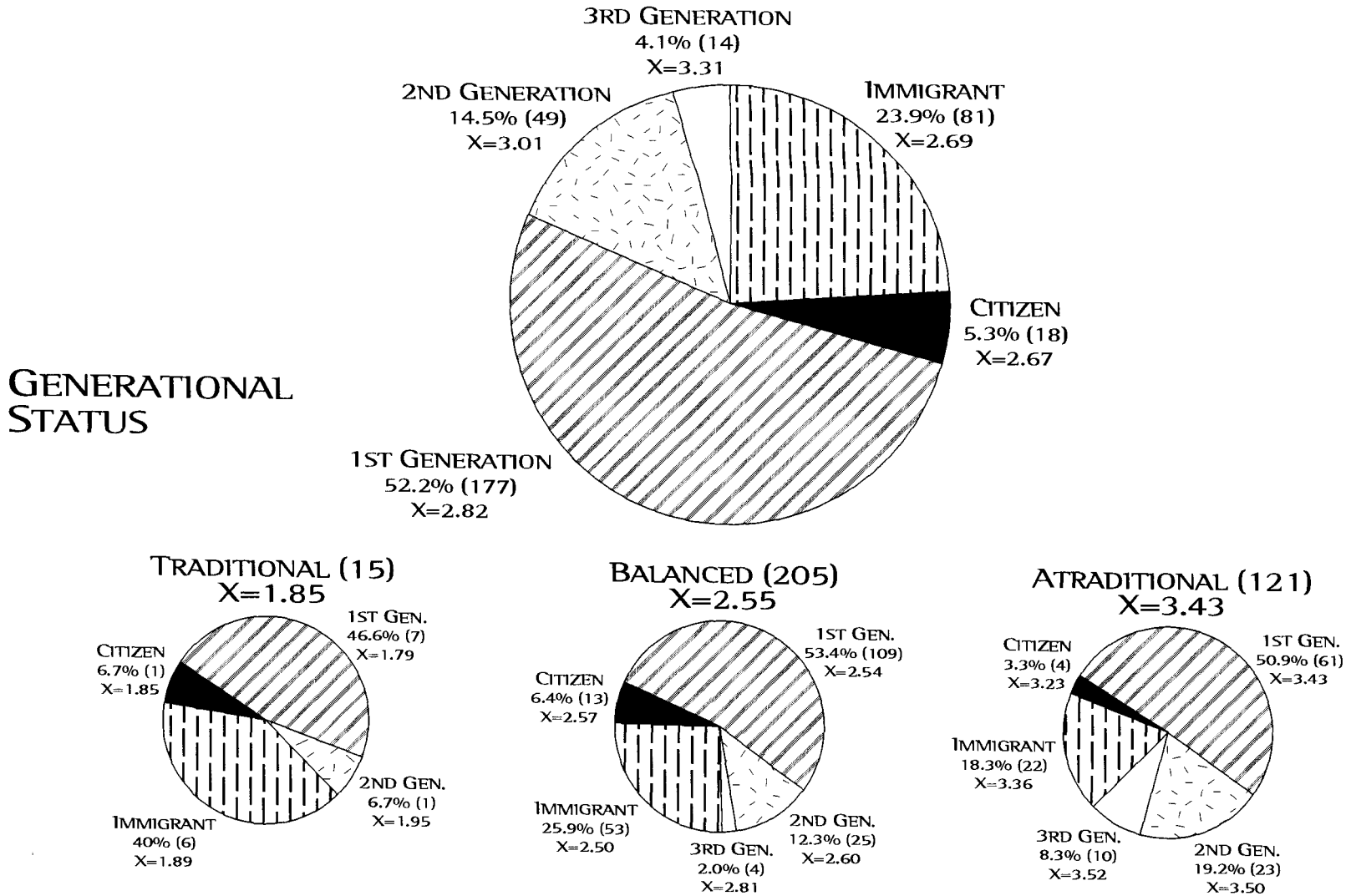


Figure 4. Biculturalism Mean Scores for All Respondents by Generational Status

When the mean biculturalism scores are examined for statistical differences according to five categories of Generational Status, significant differences are readily more apparent. For example, as one might expect, those students who were either Immigrants to the United States or Citizens (i.e., they were American citizens but resided most of their lives in Puerto Rico) had biculturalism mean scores ($\bar{X}$=2.69 and $\bar{X}$=2.67 respectively) that were closer to the Traditional end of the continuum than did either First Generation ($\bar{X}$=2.82), Second Generation ($\bar{X}$=3.01), or Third Generation ($\bar{X}$=3.31) students. The data thus reveal clearly that as these respondents and their families spent more time in the United States their biculturalism scores seemed to be identified more closely with the Atraditional (or Anglo) point on the continuum (Table 8).

There are statistically significant differences on Biculturalism mean scores for the variable Generational Status. Using a tukey post hoc test ($F=6.27$, $p \leq .0001$) the mean score for Third Generation students ($\bar{X}$=3.31) was found to be significantly higher (closer to the Atraditional end of the scale) from the mean scores for Citizens ($\bar{X}$=2.67), Immigrant ($\bar{X}$=2.69), and First Generation ($\bar{X}$=2.82) students. Also, the mean score for Second Generation students ($\bar{X}$=3.01) is significantly higher from the mean score for Immigrants ($\bar{X}$=2.69).

However, even though the above pattern seems apparent, one must remember that none of the five biculturalism mean scores based on Generational Status was classified as Traditional (i.e., mostly Hispanic cultural identification). In fact, three status categories (Immigrant, Citizen, and First Generation) were classified as

Balanced; and the two remaining categories (Second and Third Generation) were classified as Atraditional (Table 8; Figures 4).

The fifth independent variable that was examined in this study focused on Ethnic Identity (Table 9; Figure 5). Here again, the mean biculturalism scores on this variable revealed differences among ethnic classifications with those self-identifying as "Puerto Rican" having the mean score closest to the Traditional end of the scale ($\bar{X}=2.59$) even though the mean is technically in the Balanced category. However, all three ethnic identity classifications revealed a range of mean scores from 2.59 to 2.99 which were all in the Balanced category.

Table 9.--Biculturalism Mean Scores by Respondent Ethnicity

Ethnic Characteristics	Mean	SD	N	%
Overall Biculturalism Mean	2.83	.538	343	99.4
Ethnic Identity[a]				
Mexican	2.80	.563	210	61.6
Puerto Rican	2.59	.402	44	12.9
South American	2.99	.418	35	10.3
Other	3.03	.519	52	15.2
Ethnic Composition of Neighborhood[b]				
All Hispanic	2.35	.467	18	5.3
Mostly Hispanic	2.57	.418	67	19.8
Hispanic/Anglo/African American	2.81	.514	96	28.4
Mostly or All Anglo	3.02	.526	157	46.4
Majority of Closest Friends[c]				
All Hispanic	2.16	.282	23	6.8
Mostly Hispanic	2.45	.273	108	32.0
Hispanic/Anglo/African American	2.83	.360	110	32.5
Mostly or All Anglo	3.44	.341	97	28.7
High School Closest Friends[d]				
All Hispanic	2.43	.423	51	15.1
Mostly Hispanic	2.58	.369	112	33.1
Hispanic/Anglo/African American	2.85	.402	78	23.1
Mostly or All Anglo	3.34	.448	97	28.7

[a] $F=7.08$, $p \leq .0001$ Mean scores for South American, and Other respondents are significantly different from the mean scores for Puerto Rican respondents on the biculturalism scale. Mean scores for Other respondents are also significantly different from the mean scores for Mexican respondents on the biculturalism scale.

[b] $F=19.01$, $p \leq .0001$ Mean scores for respondents living in Mostly or All Anglo neighborhoods are significantly different from the mean scores for respondents living in All, Mostly, or Mixed Hispanic, Anglo, and African American neighborhoods on the biculturalism scale. Mean scores for respondents living in Mixed Hispanic neighborhoods are also significantly different from the mean scores for respondents living in All, or Mostly Hispanic neighborhoods on the biculturalism scale.

[c] $F=196.46$, $p \leq .0001$ Mean scores for respondents whose closest friends were Mostly or All Anglo are significantly different from the mean scores for respondents whose closest friends were All, Mostly, or Mixed Hispanic, Anglo, and African American on the biculturalism scale. Mean scores for respondents whose closest friends were Mixed Hispanic, Anglo, and African American are also significantly different from the mean scores for respondents whose closest friends are All or Mostly Hispanic on the biculturalism scale.

[d] $F=80.30$, $p \leq .0001$ Mean scores for respondents whose closest high school friends were Mostly or All Anglo are significantly different from the mean scores for respondents whose closest high school friends were All, Mostly, or Mixed Hispanic, Anglo, and African American on the biculturalism scale. Mean scores for respondents whose closest high school friends were Mixed Hispanic, Anglo and African American are also significantly different from the mean scores for respondents whose closest high school friends were All or Mostly Hispanic on the biculturalism scale.

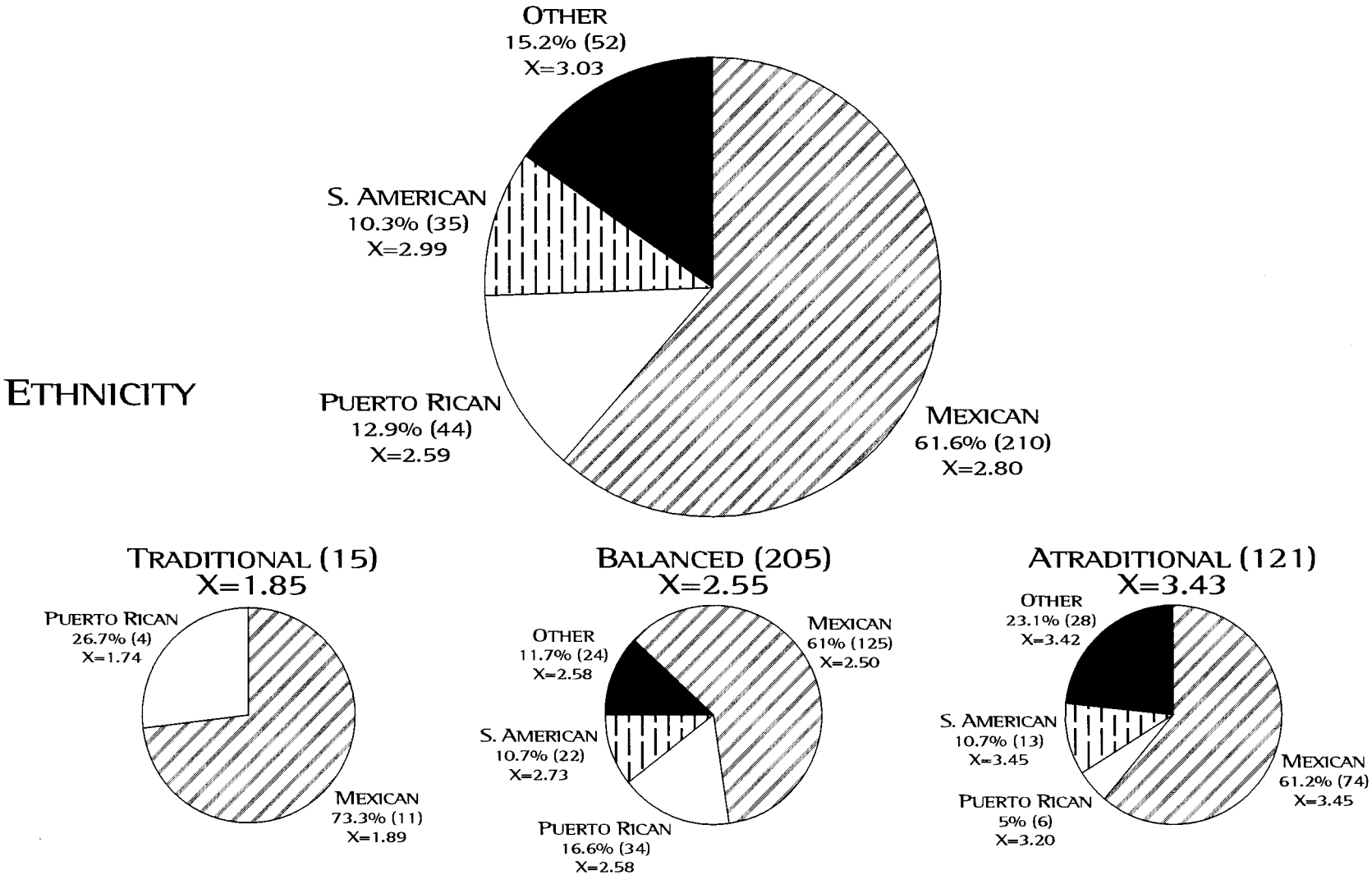


Figure 5. Biculturalism Mean Scores for All Respondents by Ethnicity

The "South American" and "Other" ethnic identity categories were most similar according to biculturalism mean scores. The "Other" category (which was created for analysis purposes only) includes Central Americans, Cuban/Cuban Americans, African Americans, and Anglos.

When statistical tests were conducted on differences between these mean scores, the scores for South American and Other respondents were found to be significantly different from the scores for Puerto Rican respondents ($F=7.08$, $p \leq .0001$). The means for Other respondents were also significantly different from scores for Mexican respondents. In other words, the means for both the Puerto Rican and Mexican categories were significantly closer to the Traditional end of the biculturalism continuum than were the remaining categories.

When respondents were asked on the survey to indicate the ethnic composition of their neighborhoods and for the majority of their closest friends (including high school friends), a significant relationship was found between biculturalism scores and neighborhood ethnicity. While respondents who reported that their neighborhoods and closest friends were either All or Mostly Hispanic had biculturalism mean scores that were technically in the Balanced category, these scores were much closer to the Traditional end of the biculturalism continuum than those who reported their neighborhoods and friends were Mostly or All Anglo. This latter group of respondents had mean scores in the Atraditional category.

Once again, tests of statistical significance (Table 9) identified differences between these mean scores. Those scores for respondents living in Mostly or All

Anglo neighborhoods ($\bar{X}$=3.02) were significantly higher (closer to the Atraditional end of the continuum) from the mean scores ($\bar{X}$=2.35; $\bar{X}$=2.57; $\bar{X}$=2.81 respectively) for respondents living in All Hispanic, Mostly Hispanic, or Mixed Hispanic, Anglo, and African American neighborhoods ($F=19.01$, $p \leq .0001$). Likewise, the mean scores ($\bar{X}$=3.44), for respondents whose closest friends were Mostly or All Anglo were significantly higher (closest to the Atraditional end of the continuum) from the scores for respondents whose closest friends were All Hispanic, Mostly Hispanic, or Mixed Hispanic, Anglo, and African American ($\bar{X}$=2.16; $\bar{X}$=2.45; $\bar{X}$=2.83 respectively).

Finally, all respondents were asked on the survey to indicate the ethnicity of their closest friends in high school. Statistically significant results were found (Table 9) in that the mean scores for respondents with closest friends who were Mostly or All Anglo ($\bar{X}$=3.34%) were significantly nearer to the Atraditional end of the continuum than were the mean scores for respondents whose closest friends were All Hispanic, Mostly Hispanic, or Mixed Hispanic, Anglo, and African American ($\bar{X}$=2.43; $\bar{X}$=2.58; $\bar{X}$=2.85).

Descriptive Results Related to Self-Reported Barriers

The third section of the questionnaire completed by students in this study contained 35 items designed to assess the extent that these students identified selected barriers or obstacles as a major concern for them in completing their university education. The 35-item instrument was created by the researcher based on a comprehensive review of the literature which revealed a wide variety of concerns

raised by Hispanic and other minority students in higher education as they tried to complete their undergraduate education.

An organizational framework developed by Cross (1981) was utilized in arranging the 35 barriers into three broad categories: situational, dispositional, and institutional. A complete description of these three categories can be found in Chapter I. Eleven barriers were categorized as situational and an additional 11 barriers were placed under the dispositional category. Finally, a total of 13 barriers were considered to be institutional.

Reliability tests were conducted on the survey data (barriers section) using the same procedure as with the biculturalism scale. There were 269 responses for the 35 questions relating to barriers. Using a Cronbach's Alpha, the per question reliability testing resulted in a .9134 reliability statistic. This is considered a highly reliable response for this instrument.

Table 10 provides descriptive data for all 341 respondents who answered the barriers section of the survey. Each respondent was asked to mark on a 4-point Likert scale the extent that the item is a "major concern." The scale ranged from a "1", Always a major concern, to a "4", Never a major concern. For all respondents the overall mean for the 35 items was 2.99 which can be interpreted to mean that as a total group the barriers identified were seldom a major concern for these students. Table 10 also provides data for the means for the three categories of barriers: Institutional ($\bar{X}$=3.15), Dispositional ($\bar{X}$=3.08), and Situational ($\bar{X}$=2.71). As can be seen from the data, again these students report that these barriers are seldom a

major concern, at least for two of the three categories (Institutional and Dispositional). However, the mean score for the Situational barriers category ($\bar{X}$=2.71) reveals that this category of barriers may present a major concern more frequently.

Table 10.--Overall Mean Barrier Score and Subscale Mean Scores for All Respondents

Scale[a] (N=341)	Mean	SD
All Barriers	2.99	.508
Institutional Barriers	3.15	.609
Dispositional Barriers	3.08	.603
Situational Barriers	2.71	.604

[a] The scale used to identify the degree that items were considered barriers is as follows: 1. Always a major concern, 2. Often a major concern, 3. Seldom a major concern, and 4. Never a major concern.

Tables 11 through 15 present data on mean barrier scores according to the five major independent variables examined in this study: Gender, Ethnic Identity, Generational Status, Age and Enrollment Status. Table 11 reveals that no major differences appear to exist between the total group of men ($\bar{X}$=3.06) and women ($\bar{X}$=2.96) in their responses to the survey questions on barriers. However, while respondents reveal that the barriers are seldom a major concern, the barriers found in the Situational category are significantly more likely to present a major concern to women ($\bar{X}$=2.66) than to men ($\bar{X}$=2.83) ($F=5.73$, $p \leq .017$).

Table 11.--Overall Mean Barrier Score and Subscale Mean Scores by Gender

	Male (N=103)		Female (N=238)	
	Mean[a]	SD	Mean[a]	SD
All Barriers[b]	3.06	.502	2.96	.508
Institutional Barriers[c]	3.17	.590	3.13	.618
Dispositional Barriers[d]	3.14	.609	3.05	.600
Situational Barriers[e]	2.83	.575	2.66	.611

[a] The scale used to identify the degree that items were considered barriers is as follows: 1. Always a major concern, 2. Often a major concern, 3. Seldom a major concern, and 4. Never a major concern.

[b] There are no significant differences between overall barrier mean scores based on Gender.

[c] There are no significant differences between Institutional barrier mean scores based on Gender.

[d] There are no significant differences between Dispositional barrier mean scores based on Gender.

[e] $F=5.73$, $p \leq .017$ Mean scores for Females are significantly different (more of a concern) than the mean scores for Males on the Situational barrier scale.

While Tables 12 and 13 reveal that no statistically significant differences exist among mean scores for barriers according to Ethnic Identity or Generational Status variables, Tables 14 and 15 do indicate that significant differences can be found when the independent variables Age and Enrollment Status are considered. As revealed in Table 14, traditional-aged students (18 to 24 years) report that Institutional barriers are significantly more problematic for them than they are for older students (25 years and over). This is a surprising finding in that much of the literature has long reported that older adult learners typically have experienced many more institutionally-based

issues than have traditional-aged students. On the other hand, older students may be better equipped to handle institutional obstacles because of their maturity level.

Table 12.--Overall Mean Barrier Score and Subscale Mean Scores by Student Ethnic Identity

	Mexican (N=210)		Puerto Rican Islander (N=43)		South American (N=34)		Other (N=52)	
	Mean[a]	SD	Mean[a]	SD	Mean[a]	SD	Mean[a]	SD
All Barriers[b]	2.97	.502	2.95	.526	3.08	.459	3.08	.520
Institutional Barriers[c]	3.11	.612	3.12	.646	3.35	.479	3.26	.596
Dispositional Barriers[d]	3.07	.598	3.03	.621	3.07	.583	3.16	.615
Situational Barriers[e]	2.70	.593	2.69	.626	2.78	.565	2.77	.646

[a] The scale used to identify the degree that items were considered barriers is as follows: 1. Always a major concern, 2. Often a major concern, 3. Seldom a major concern, and 4. Never a major concern.

[b] There are no significant differences between overall barrier mean scores based on Ethnic Identity.

[c] There are no significant differences between Institutional barrier mean scores based on Ethnic Identity.

[d] There are no significant differences between Dispositional barrier mean scores based on Ethnic Identity.

[e] There are no significant differences between Situational barrier mean scores based on Ethnic Identity.

Table 13.--Overall Mean Barrier Score and Subscale Mean Scores by Generational Status

	Immigrant (N=81)		Citizen (N=18)		First Generation (N=175)		Second Generation (N=49)		Third Generation (N=14)	
	Mean[a]	SD	Mean[a]	SD	Mean[a]	SD	Mean[a]	SD	Mean[a]	SD
All Barriers[b]	2.95	.553	2.98	.471	3.00	.494	2.98	.450	3.28	.537
Institutional Barriers[c]	3.06	.642	3.17	.581	3.17	.590	3.18	.590	3.53	.425
Dispositional Barriers[d]	3.11	.674	3.13	.554	3.05	.578	3.06	.567	3.27	.686
Situational Barriers[e]	2.65	.670	2.60	.553	2.74	.592	2.68	.524	2.98	.656

[a] The scale used to identify the degree that items were considered barriers is as follows: 1. Always a major concern, 2. Often a major concern, 3. Seldom a major concern, and 4. Never a major concern.

[b] There are no significant differences between overall barrier mean scores based on Generational Status.

[c] There are no significant differences between Institutional barrier mean scores based on Generational Status.

[d] There are no significant differences between Dispositional barrier mean scores based on Generational Status.

[e] There are no significant differences between Situational barrier mean scores based on Generational Status.

Table 14.--Overall Mean Barrier Score and Subscale Mean Scores by Age

	18 to 24 Years (N=232)		25 Years and Over (N=109)	
	Mean[a]	SD	Mean[a]	SD
All Barriers[b]	2.96	.511	3.05	.499
Institutional Barriers[c]	3.05	.612	3.36	.548
Dispositional Barriers[d]	3.09	.596	3.05	.619
Situational Barriers[e]	2.73	.592	2.67	.631

[a] The scale used to identify the degree that items were considered barriers is as follows: 1. Always a major concern, 2. Often a major concern, 3. Seldom a major concern, and 4. Never a major concern.

[b] There are no significant differences between overall barrier mean scores based on Age.

[c] $F=20.72$, $p \leq .0001$ Mean scores for older respondents (25 years and over) are significantly different (less of a concern) than the mean scores for younger respondents (18 to 24 years) on the Institutional barriers scale.

[d] There are no significant differences between Dispositional barrier mean scores based on Age.

[e] There are no significant differences between Situational barrier mean scores based on Age.

Table 15 reveals that Full-time students report that they have significantly greater concern with Institutional Barriers than do Part-time students. This may seem plausible since full-time students have much more contact with their institutions and thus have many more opportunities than do part-time students to encounter various bureaucratic and attitudinal obstacles. Additionally, this finding is congruent with the data discussed above regarding student age. Since the vast majority of full-time students are of traditional-age in this study and since this group of students reports more concern with institutional barriers than do older students, it follows that

full-time students would likely have more concerns with the institution than would part-time students. On the other hand, one could make the opposite case that part-time students should experience even greater concerns with their institutions than full-time students, since part-time students are often older and they do not always get their unique needs for academic, financial and personal support met by institutions. Interestingly, the data reported in this study do not lend support to the latter conclusion.

Table 15.--Overall Mean Barrier Score and Subscale Mean Scores by Enrollment Status

	Part Time (N=96)		Full Time (N=239)	
	Mean[a]	SD	Mean[a]	SD
All Barriers[b]	3.01	.506	2.98	.504
Institutional Barriers[c]	3.31	.597	3.09	.597
Dispositional Barriers[d]	3.00	.617	3.11	.593
Situational Barriers[e]	2.68	.613	2.72	.599

[a] The scale used to identify the degree that items were considered barriers is as follows: 1. Always a major concern, 2. Often a major concern, 3. Seldom a major concern, and 4. Never a major concern.

[b] There are no significant differences between overall barrier mean scores based on Enrollment.

[c] $F=9.63$, $p \leq .002$ Mean scores for Part time students are significantly different (less of a concern) than the mean scores for Full time students on the Institutional barrier scale.

[d] There are no significant differences between Dispositional barrier mean scores based on Enrollment.

[e] There are no significant differences between Situational barrier mean scores based on Enrollment.

Table 16 provides both an overall composite mean ($\bar{X}$=3.076) and a listing of the individual mean scores that together comprise the Dispositional barriers subscale on the survey sent to undergraduate Hispanic students. The scale used was of a Likert-type which ranged from "1" (Always a major concern) to "4" (Never a major concern). The 11 items are listed in Table 16 in descending order of concern.

Table 16.--Dispositional Barriers Item Mean Scores for All Respondents

Survey Item	Mean[a]	SD
Overall Dispositional Barriers Mean	3.076	.603
o. At times, feeling I cannot compete academically.	2.726	1.018
p. Having a lack of confidence in my abilities when taking a test.	2.749	1.000
l. Feeling discouraged due to time it takes to get a degree.	2.762	1.071
r. Staying motivated to get a degree because I have to work twice as hard as anybody else.	2.794	1.080
q. Being uncomfortable when called upon in class.	2.809	1.020
n. Feeling unsure of my academic goals.	2.909	1.043
s. Family creating tension and stress for me affects my campus life.	2.994	1.088
v. Feeling that my campus is a welcome place.	3.301	.916
m. Faculty and other university personnel make me feel that being in college is not where I belong.	3.598	.736
u. Feeling I'm too old to learn and cannot grasp information as quickly.	3.621	.813
t. Getting my parents to accept my going to college when my other siblings are treated much differently.	3.734	.674

[a] The scale used to identify the degree that items were considered barriers is as follows: 1. Always a major concern, 2. Often a major concern, 3. Seldom a major concern, and 4. Never a major concern.

The first seven items had mean scores that clustered between 2.726 and 2.994 signifying that for the respondents these dispositional barriers were a major concern at least for some of the time. However, the remaining four items were found to be "seldom a major concern." Dispositional barriers that were reported to be (relatively speaking) more of a concern than others include: (a) "at times, feeling I cannot compete academically" ($\bar{X}$=2.726); (b) "having a lack of confidence in my abilities when taking a test" ($\bar{X}$=2.749); and (c) "feeling discouraged due to time it takes to get a degree" ($\bar{X}$=2.762).

Table 17 also provides both a composite mean score ($\bar{X}$=3.15) and a list of the individual mean scores for each of thirteen (13) items that comprise the Institutional barriers subscale. Clearly, one item "receiving scholarships to help pay tuition" ($\bar{X}$=2.094) was considered by the respondents to be "often a major concern." Two other barriers were also identified as presenting a concern at times. These include: (a) "availability of Hispanic faculty as advisors and role models" ($\bar{X}$=2.891) and (b) "receiving a work-study or any other job on campus" ($\bar{X}$=2.897). The remaining 10 items reveal that for the student respondents these institutional barriers were seldom a major concern.

Table 17.--Institutional Barriers Item Mean Scores for All Respondents

Survey Item	Mean[a]	SD
Overall Institutional Barriers Mean	3.150	.609
dd. Receiving scholarships to help pay tuition	2.094	1.190
gg. Availability of Hispanic faculty as advisors and role models	2.891	1.146
ee. Receiving a work-study or any other job on campus	2.897	1.177
x. Having Hispanic student advisor or counselor available on campus	3.112	1.037
aa. Having other Hispanic students on campus to interact with	3.115	.987
w. Having faculty listen when I ask questions or express concerns in class	3.174	.915
y. Feeling uncomfortable with hostilities toward Latinos in the academic environment	3.215	.960
cc. Experiencing isolation and loneliness on campus	3.230	.967
bb. Experiencing an unequal quality of teaching on campus	3.289	.910
hh. A lack of knowledge regarding campus policies	3.388	.850
ff. Availability of courses to help me become more proficient in English	3.500	.917
ii. Campus culture is an obstacle in my academic achievement	3.560	.716
z. Having personal conflicts with peers on campus	3.674	.640

[a] The scale used to identify the degree that items were considered barriers is as follows: 1. Always a major concern, 2. Often a major concern, 3. Seldom a major concern, and 4. Never a major concern.

Finally, Table 18 provides both a composite mean ($\bar{X}$=2.71) and a list of mean scores for each of the 11 items that comprise the Situational barriers subscale. On this subscale six items reveal means that reflect serious concerns that the respondents have. For example, one item "having enough money to pay tuition, books, and fees" ($\bar{X}$=1.776) is identified clearly as a barrier that is between "always"

and "often" a major concern. Further, an additional five situational barriers items all had mean scores ranging between 2.115 and 2.563 indicating that these items also were considered to be a major concern. These barriers include "having enough quality study time at home to complete my assignments" ($\bar{X}$=2.115); "being able to afford full-time student status to get a degree sooner" ($\bar{X}$=2.171); "finishing my program in a reasonable time frame" ($\bar{X}$=2.229); "feeling sufficiently prepared for college level work" ($\bar{X}$=2.482); and "having enough writing skills to complete my work" ($\bar{X}$=2.563).

Table 18.--Situational Barriers Item Mean Scores for All Respondents

Survey Item	Mean[a]	SD
Overall Situational Barriers Mean	3.710	.604
e. Having enough money to pay tuition, books, and fees.	1.776	1.006
a. Having enough quality study time at home to complete my assignments.	2.115	1.027
i. Being able to afford full-time student status to get degree sooner.	2.171	1.207
d. Finishing my program in a reasonable time frame.	2.229	1.135
b. Feeling sufficiently prepared for college level work.	2.482	1.085
c. Having enough writing skills to complete my work.	2.563	1.087
f. Family understanding my need for a social life on campus.	3.018	1.114
h. Family approval of academic time demands getting a degree requires.	3.109	1.066
g. Demands put upon me because of child care responsibilities.	3.467	.977
k. Convincing my family that higher education is important and needed.	3.548	.879
j. Having enough money for good as well as convenient child care so I can attend college.	3.617	.878

[a] The scale used to identify the degree that items were considered barriers is as follows: 1. Always a major concern, 2. Often a major concern, 3. Seldom a major concern, and 4. Never a major concern.

From Tables 16, 17, and 18 it seems clear that among the three types of barriers (using the Cross typology) that Situational barriers related to a student's own situation or circumstance are the barriers that present the most concern. Barriers that revolve around personal financial circumstances clearly seem to be issues that may prevent these students from succeeding in their educational goals. Institutions need to provide more on campus job opportunities with pay rates at least as high as minimun

wage or slightly higher. Likewise, the lack of finances lead students to work many hours each week thus preventing them from having the quality study time they need to succeed. This, in turn, may force students to take longer to earn their academic degrees thus leading to greater concern and frustration with how long it is taking to complete. For some students, the goal of earning a degree can seem far out of reach and this feeling can contribute to their giving up on their educational pursuits.

Interaction of Biculturalism

Table 19 and Figures 6 and 7 reveal statistically significant interactions between respondent level of biculturalism and reported barriers to success in higher education. For example, respondents classified as "Traditional" biculturals (N=15) revealed statistically significant more concern with all three types of barriers (Situational, Institutional and Dispositional) than did either the "Balanced" or "Atraditional" biculturals. Among the Traditional biculturals, Situational and Institutional barriers were especially reported to be "often a major concern". This finding seems consistent with earlier research (Flores, 1989) that shows that students who have not integrated well within the predominant culture experience more problems in adjusting to the educational environment than those who have adjusted. This shows that students have not learned how to speak for themselves and negotiate within the confines of their educational institutions.

Table 19.--Overall Mean Barrier Score and Subscale Mean Scores by Biculturalism Categorizations[a]

	Traditional (N=15)		Balanced (N=205)		Atraditional (N=121)	
	Mean[b]	SD	Mean[b]	SD	Mean[b]	SD
All Barriers[c]	2.46	.46	2.92	.50	3.17	.46
Institutional Barriers[d]	2.42	.60	3.04	.60	3.43	.48
Dispositional Barriers[e]	2.69	.50	3.04	.59	3.19	.61
Situational Barriers[f]	2.27	.60	2.67	.60	2.84	.59

[a] The overall biculturalism mean is 2.828 (SD .538). An individual classed as "Traditional" achieved a score between 1.00 and 1.99 on the overall biculturalism scale. An individual achieving a score between 2.00 and 3.00 is viewed as "Balanced" and an individual scoring between 3.01 and 4.00 is "Atraditional".

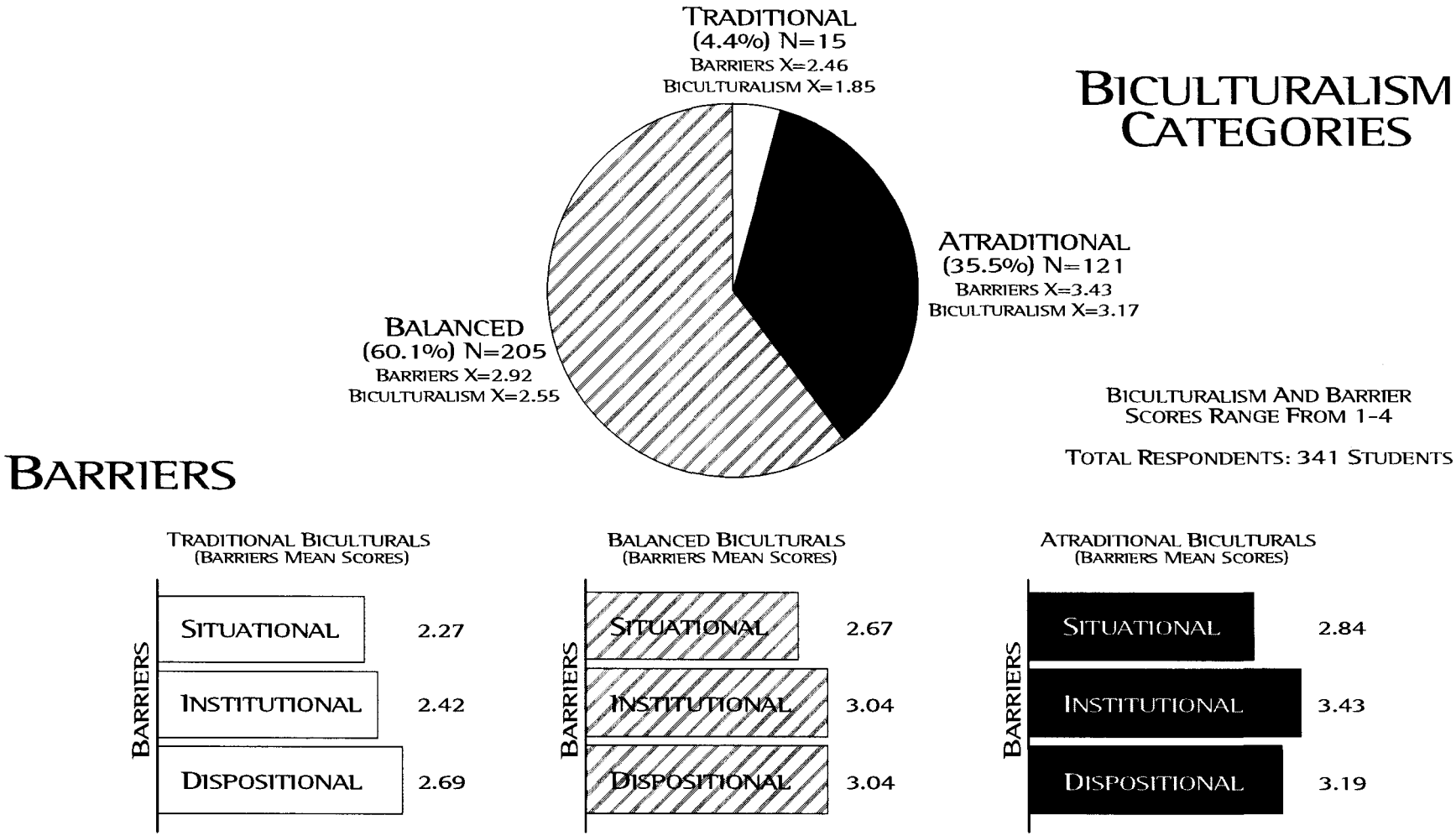
[b] The scale used to identify the degree that items were considered barriers is as follows: 1. Always a major concern, 2. Often a major concern, 3. Seldom a major concern, and 4. Never a major concern. Multivariate tests of significance reveal a significant relationship between the barriers subscale variables when examined by the biculturalism categorizations of "Traditional," "Balanced," and "Atraditional" (Wilk's Lambda=.83869, approx. $F=10.30$, $p \leq .0001$).

[c] $F=19.61$, $p \leq .0001$ All mean scores are significantly different from each other on the overall barriers scale. That is "Traditional" respondent mean scores are significantly lower than "Balanced" respondent mean scores, and "Balanced" respondent mean scores are significantly lower than "Atraditional" respondent mean scores.

[d] $F=32.09$, $p \leq .0001$ All mean scores are significantly different from each other on the Institutional barriers scale. That is "Traditional" respondent mean scores are significantly lower than "Balanced" respondent mean scores, and "Balanced" respondent mean scores are significantly lower than "Atraditional" respondent mean scores.

[e] $F=5.83$, $p \leq .003$ Mean scores for "Traditional" respondents are significantly different from the mean scores for "Atraditional" respondents on the Dispositional barriers scale.

[f] $F=7.54$, $p \leq .001$ All mean scores are significantly different from each other on the Situational barriers scale. That is "Traditional" respondent mean scores are significantly lower than "Balanced" respondent mean scores, and "Balanced" respondent mean scores are significantly lower than "Atraditional" respondent mean scores.



(Significance was found in all 3 barrier types (see Table 19.))

Figure 6. Graphic Profile of Respondents by Biculturalism and Barriers

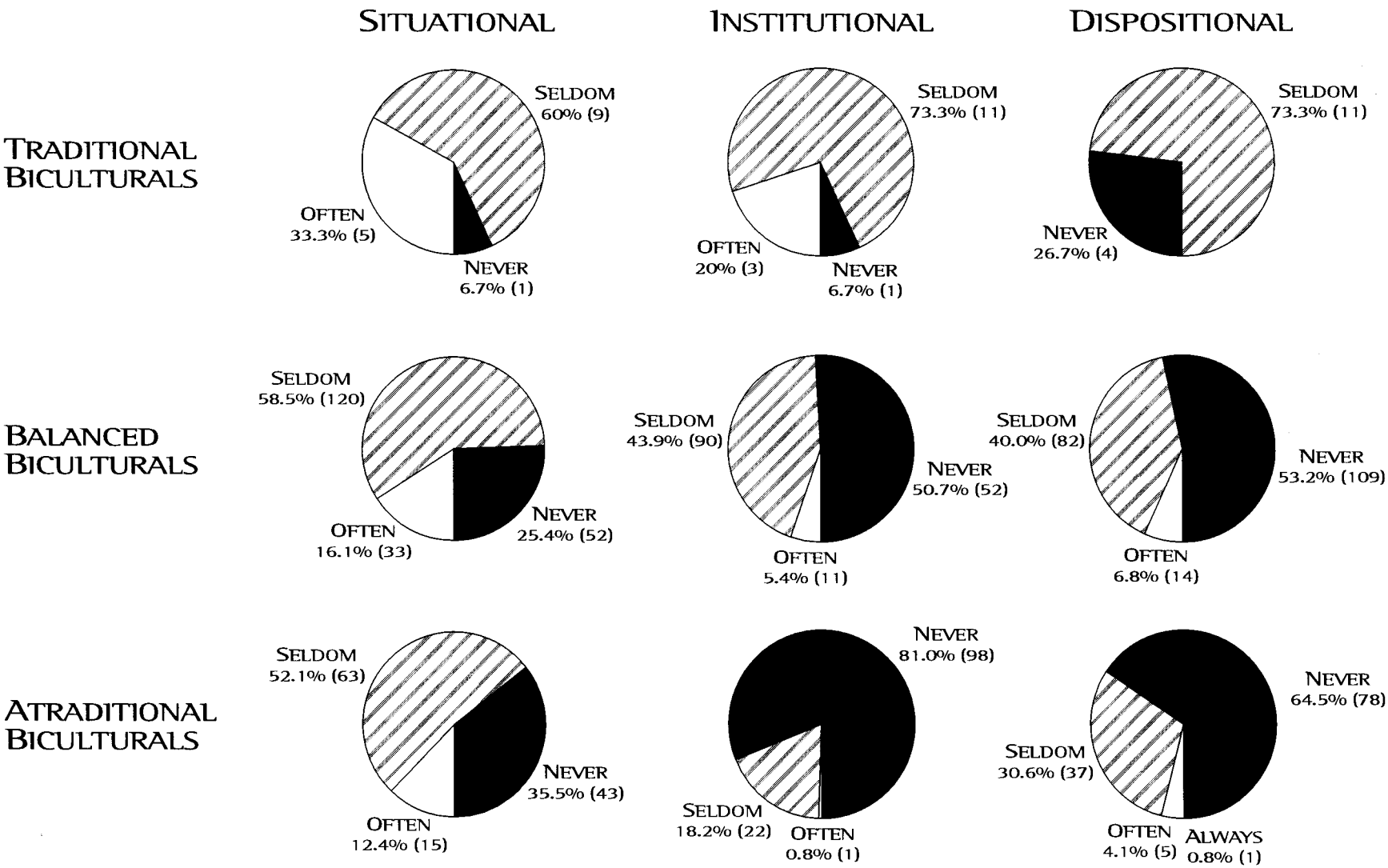


Figure 7. Respondent Barrier Type by Bicultural Status

However, contrary to previous research, this study's respondents who were classified as "Balanced" biculturals (N=205) reported higher levels of concern on all three types of barriers than did "Atraditional" biculturals (the group most closely identified with the Anglo culture). Among the Balanced biculturals, the Situational barriers were cited statistically more often as a major concern than were either Institutional or Dispositional barriers. Prior research would suggest that, among the three types of bicultural students, the "Balanced" group would report the least amount of concern with selected barriers. Such was not found in this current study on undergraduate Hispanic students attending three urban private universities.

Finally, the "Atraditional" bicultural group (N=121) reported the least concern with all three categories of barriers than did either of the other two groups of respondents. However, similarly to the other two bicultural groups, the "Atraditional" group also did report the most concern with Situational barriers.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the results of surveys completed by 343 undergraduate Hispanic students enrolled in three religiously affiliated universities in the Chicago metropolitan area. A descriptive profile was provided of the student respondents and statistical computations revealing the extent of student biculturalism were presented. Student perceptions of barriers to academic success within the university were presented and grouped using the Cross (1981) typology of Situational, Institutional and Dispositional barriers. Finally, data were reported on the interaction effects of student biculturalism and barriers.

Chapter V, which follows, will present the results of personal interviews conducted by the researcher with several student respondents at the three participating universities.

Chapter VI provides a summary of the research, conclusions reached and implications for both further research and policy enactment in higher education.

CHAPTER V

OPEN-ENDED COMMENTS AND INTERVIEW RESULTS

Introduction

In the final section of the survey instrument mailed to the Hispanic students in this study, there were three open-ended questions that asked for student comments. One question asked respondents to list any additional barriers that may have hindered their educational progress. Two other questions asked respondents to identify their "true feelings" as to what their urban institutions were or were not doing for them as they pursued their degrees. The comments given by the respondents basically reinforced, in more detail, what the survey results had reported.

From responses to these three questions, this researcher developed a short list of interview questions (see Appendix K) to ask five students from each campus who had indicated they would like to be contacted for a personal interview. The interviews took place on each campus during the month of September 1993.

Results of Open-Ended Comments

Other Barriers Encountered

The total number of respondents who provided comments to the question raised relating to "other" barriers encountered was 117. This response was out of a possible 343 responses which means approximately one third or 34% of the students actually took the time to answer the question.

The one barrier that appeared to be of most concern in this section was financial with 35% of the responses focused on the barrier. The respondents made reference to being able to afford tuition, books and school-related expenses in combination with general living expenses. Statements made by the students include: "Financially, the tuition, room and board has drained all my funds and loans are hard to come by"; "I have encountered many financial problems while in college. The pressure and stress of not always knowing how to obtain enough money to pay for school was often hard to deal with"; and "I have to work at least forty-five hours a week and get loans from everywhere in order to cover school expenses. I go to college full time and the twenty four hours of each day are not enough, I need forty hour days!"

Another area of concern related to the students' jobs (25%), which is closely aligned to the financial issue, was that many of the students had to hold down one or more full-time jobs in order to finance their education. This hindered their academic performance and presented many time management issues. One student indicated: "Keeping up with homework because of a hectic schedule with my full time job, two classes a quarter, and a four year old on weekends, is quite a challenge, especially with demanding professors."

Approximately 20% of the students felt minority issues were a concern for them. In dealing with feelings brought about by discrimination or prejudice by other students or faculty, the respondents commented as follows: "Oh, you are Hispanic, that is why you asked that (dumb) question"; "You are not as 'Hispanic' as we are

because you do not speak Spanish fluently"; "I have been told that by being Hispanic it is more difficult to learn"; or "You have a learning disability because you are Hispanic"; and lastly, "I do not have time to explain the question on the exam, the language is your problem."

Some students also reported that the faculty graded unfairly and tended to hold a "sense of superiority" over minority students. Examples of this include: "Faculty members do not listen to students' problems or concerns, all they are interested in is showing you 'they are in charge' and if you have a problem, you are treated indifferently." "Male faculty members always give me a "B" grade on a subjective test no matter what. Even when my work is better than other male students in the class, they get the higher grade. Whereas, female faculty members often give me an "A" for a similar type answer on an exam. It is very discouraging and harder to stay in school."

Other comments by students who were very concerned about discrimination were that advisors failed to pass on information in a timely manner regarding course planning and financial aid. For example, some students commented: "I cannot believe with a 3.9 GPA after two years I have not received any notices of eligibility for scholarships"; "My advisor told me to take only 9 semester hours because she felt I could not handle any more (being Hispanic). This forced me to make up the hours another semester"; or, "I did not know how to fill out any kind of forms for financial aid or know the rules of college, and found no support to help me." Also addressing the issue of discrimination was a student who said: "Because I am Hispanic, I am not

getting the breaks that white students get." Research supports this comment (Chapa & Valencia, 1993; Orfield & Paul, 1988; Ravitch, 1990; Rendon, 1989; Richardson, 1989, 1992).

Family issues also presented barriers to 14% of the respondents. The students reported that they had to help care for siblings which cut into their study time and that parents did not understand why their education is necessary or important. Some comments by the students included: "Culturally and traditionally focused, my Mexican family feels I should have married and become a wife and mother instead of getting an education to pursue a career"; "Every time I share my knowledge with my relatives and friends it creates clashes. I do not want to lose my closeness with my family, if success in my educational accomplishments creates conflict between my people, I prefer to stay with them...It is like a culture clash"; and "Usually Hispanic families count on all members of the family for contributions and support both financially and physically...this takes time away from my studies." Another respondent commented that, "I am the first person in my family about to graduate from college, therefore, everything was left up to me. I had to pay for college, motivate myself, balance work and my studies with no idea from my parents for what I had to go through."

Other areas mentioned by the respondents were time and time management, poor high school background, language and self-esteem. These particular issues represented 10% of the responses. The issues that seem to be of the greatest concern again emphasized finances, jobs, discrimination, and lack of family understanding.

These areas of concern were items found on the survey completed by students and thus were confirmed by the students as barriers they had actually experienced which were a major concern.

Institutional Programs

The first open-ended survey question asked students to identify effective and helpful programs their institutions were currently conducting for undergraduate Hispanic students. The students were asked to "give examples of ways in which their campus actually provided support needed for them to pursue their educational goals." There were 285 responses to this question which was the highest number of responses for all the open-ended questions. This meant that approximately 83% of the respondents completed this question. This large response was quite positive overall and indicated many ways the respondents were satisfied with the services their institutions provided.

The written comments were placed into three broad categories including (a) Financial Aid programs, (b) Advising, Tutoring or Counseling programs, and (c) Faculty. The Financial Aid category was frequently listed with a 45% response. Some of the comments by the students included: "My campus has provided good financial aid information, counseling, and tutoring help"; "I have received a lot of financial help through the FA office which has made my institution affordable"; "The financial aid I receive has been the most important support the university gives me for continuing my college career"; "The financial aid office is on the ball"; "The Hispanic Alliance Program provided me with several resources including tutoring,

counseling, invitations to academic gatherings, and above all made me aware of all the different types of financial aid available to me"; "My institution has provided financial support on the basis of my financial need as well as talent"; "My Financial Aid office has helped me with different options I could choose from"; "The Hispanic Woman's Project and the grant money available was the only way I could return to undergraduate studies to obtain my degree"; and "My university has provided good support to enable me financially by giving me work study".

The second category of written responses related to helpful and effective institutional programs is Advising, Tutoring and Counseling programs. These programs combined were mentioned 47% of the time (Tutoring alone was mentioned 16%). Examples of helpful programs identified by the students include: "My institution has been extremely helpful to me in counseling and tutoring when it comes to writing essay assignments"; "The campus has provided me the counseling services and advisors who have gotten me where I am today"; "My counselor is my savior"; "My university has provided me with a lot of support in financial help as well as counseling and advising"; "Campus counseling has given me the feeling of support, knowing someone else was on my side"; "I have a wonderful support team through my counselor and the School for New Learning"; and "My campus has provided and encouraged the use of available resources through counselors and academic advisors and tutors there for my use."

The last major category of responses related to institutional programs involved the Faculty. They were generally characterized as understanding, encouraging and

supportive. The response rate was 29% for this category. The following are typical student comments: "Faculty is available if I need to talk to them. In fact they encourage me to go see them, which makes me feel welcome on campus"; "My institution has a very understanding and helpful faculty, they have advised and guided me to a successful future"; "My campus has understanding faculty. They are extremely polite and understanding and they are very specific in the courses they teach"; "The faculty are very nice and push you to do your best. The atmosphere is very encouraging to students"; "The faculty has been a great help to me in becoming familiar with the language and given me the confidence I needed to be able to speak out in class"; and "The faculty have always been available for a one on one discussion and coaching if I have a question or do not know how to approach an assignment. They have helped me stay focused on my educational goals and have provided direction."

Additional areas commented on by some respondents included: social organizations on campus, admissions procedures, scheduling, communications, and university ministry. In general all of these services appeared to meet Hispanic student needs.

There were also some negative comments contained in some of the student responses. Some of the main areas of concern commented on by the students and interpreted as a dissatisfaction on their campus included: racial bias; financial aid office slow in disseminating information or general inefficiency of the office; a lack of minority advisors and a general lack of student concern by counselors; and faculty

looking out for their own interests and not available to students. Some examples of comments by the respondents included: "On the whole, Latino students are ignored on campus"; " My university is money hungry, that is all they really want"; "It is very difficult to find out how to get involved on my campus"; "I am ineligible for financial aid because my parents make too much money, however, I pay for school"; and "I am burned out and feel that no one cares. I have to carry eighteen hours a semester and work, because I cannot afford to go the full four years".

Desired Institutional Programs

The second question asked student respondents for their ideas regarding institutional support they would have liked to receive but did not at their institutions. A total of 245 respondents commented on this question which represents approximately 71% of the 343 respondents. Some of the students chose not to answer this question, perhaps because they did not know what was meant by institutional support or did not want to take the time to respond. The response pattern appears to be similar to the answers provided in the previous two questions. For example, students would like to have more financial aid (34%) available to them; more and better informed advisors and counselors along with more Hispanic counselors in particular (23%); and more Hispanic faculty who are better understanding of student needs (12%).

Other areas on which fewer than 10% of these respondents commented included an increase in Hispanic support services, along with an increase in multicultural course requirements. Also mentioned by the respondents were help in

bridging diversity gaps on campus and having more mentors, role models and career opportunities available. A more extensive class schedule was also indicated as classes are often closed at registration by the time some of the respondents get their opportunity to choose courses. Some of the respondents' specific examples of the additional support requested on campus include: "All university institutions should help students through a goal setting workshop where they could identify their goals and focus on a major"; "I noticed that most Hispanic professors are in the Spanish department. It would be most encouraging to see Hispanic professors in other academic and administrative areas of the university"; "My institution needs to find a better way of communicating with the students. At times vital information was received too late, regarding scholarships, class changes, social activities, tutoring, and job openings"; "Create a school atmosphere that fully understands and addresses the issues and concerns of Latino and other minority students"; "The entire university must become culturally sensitive by eliminating ignorance of other cultures on campus"; "My institution should set up a scholarship bank for needy students who can fill out general application forms and both administrators and counselors can help them find money for college through the different channels available on campus"; "I feel my institution should follow up with students to see how they are doing rather than waiting for the student to approach the counselor for help"; "A Latino/Hispanic job network needs to be established on campus to bring together Latino professionals/alums with their academic community"; "I think that the school should mandate all students, traditional, evening, weekend, and continuing education, to take

courses pertaining to cultural differences"; and lastly, "More Hispanic instructors, role models, study skill seminars, and programs designated to unite the Hispanic students on campus."

There were a few comments from a group of students who responded to the question "what can your institution do for you in successfully meeting your academic goals" that were quite different. They seemed to be most concerned that the Latino community was being singled out for special attention. Some of their comments in this area were: "Everyone is equal and should be treated equally. If I need advisors to help me pick classes, they should be there, not because I am Hispanic, but because I am a student that needs help. Being Hispanic is not a barrier, it is an honor"; "I do not consider my ethnic background a hindrance. I realize that some minorities are not as fortunate, but by extending a substantial amount of support to any one minority group, the university runs the risk of doing more harm than good"; and "I feel minorities are pampered and given too much attention. Frankly, I am not motivated by cultural or social settings, but by my own ability to function as a human being".

Campus Interviews with Hispanic Students

The written responses that were generated from students completing the survey were compiled and analyzed for the purpose of preparing for interviews with five students on each of the three urban campuses involved in the survey research. On the original mailed survey each student was asked if he/she would be interested in being contacted for an on-campus interview with the researcher. Approximately six percent of the students said yes. Out of that number 15 students were chosen who (a) had

provided comments to the open-ended questions on the survey, and (b) were available on the scheduled day and time the interviews were to take place on each campus. The scheduled interviews were conducted in September 1993. Each session lasted approximately one hour per group. The researcher/interviewer timed the responses to roughly 15 minutes per question. The following is a summary of responses to each of the five questions for all 15 students (from the three universities) combined.

Question 1: What are the top two or three barriers that are hindering your degree completion on your campus? Please take a few minutes to put them in rank order.

The respondents commented with the following: Larry stated that his biggest concern was "Financial, working too many hours to get good grades". Dante commented that his problems were financial too, but he included a problem with course offerings: "Annually I am $500 short and course offerings that are available are not always the ones I need". Tianna felt that "Time constraints were a major concern. Today you have to 'get a free ride' or work in order to get through college. There is no middle ground." Ruben said that his major concern was also financial: "My problem is financial. I have a part time job but there is not enough there to pay my tuition". Leo appeared to be an older student with added responsibilities, his concerns were: "Family for me. My wife is very supportive, but we do have three children. I still have to find time for them as well as my day job and study time for this degree".

Question 2: Have you experienced any hostilities or discrimination (either racial or gender bias) toward Latinos on your campus by fellow students or professors? Any favoritism toward male or female students in class or in grading?

The respondents' answers to this question varied greatly. For example, Augustine stated that "Anglos fear Hispanics because they do not know or understand their culture and that is why they often make negative comments toward them". Julie felt that "Being female and Hispanic is a double whammy...females do not belong in college and all Hispanics are dumb and cannot get through college anyway." Connie said, "A male professor totally intimated me in my class by singling me out. I was very stressed (and embarrassed) over that." Jim found some information passed to the students was simply ignorance. "What shocked me (Jim) was a fellow student asking me if my first language was English because I did not have too much of an accent. I was sure hurt. I am third generation, I was born here. My parents were born here...I guess it is kind of an image of what they think a Hispanic student is." Adrianna said she remembers being in a class discussion on welfare when the professor said: "If these Mexicans would only get off their lazy butts and get a job." She replied "Maybe they cannot help it." After class she questioned him and he said "I did not mean anything by it, it is simply factual." Her response: "I was shocked that he would think that, much less say that. He is supposed to be an educator, she said." Another situation Adrianna found herself in was another class on campus where a fellow student asked her "Are you a mix? Please do not take offense...you just do not look like you are not whole." Adrianna said, "So what is a typical Mexican in your mind?" The fellow student replied: "But, you are not like them."

Question 3: Are there any role models on your campus with whom you feel comfortable communicating? Has isolation among your peers been a problem for you?

Responses to this question were very diverse. Some of the respondents felt that their parents or siblings were their greatest supporters in their educational endeavors. Others said it was someone at work or the professors on campus. Connie said, "My brother at home who started college but never finished encouraged me to go to college, along with my counselor at work. She was very close to me, she got her masters and always encouraged me to go to college". Dan commented, "I am the first in my family to go to college. My mother pushes me to go to school constantly." Sandy said, "The woman (Becky) who works in our admissions office and is our club moderator has been very helpful and supportive to us (Latinos)." Tianna commented that "The gentleman in admissions was a wonderful role model. He took special interest in Hispanic students and was always there encouraging us." Adrianna felt her "Mom's sister and her husband have been my biggest supporters. I am the first one in my family to go to college. Any time I get discouraged they know it and are right there with encouragement, boosting my self esteem." And, finally, Jim made an interesting observation when he said: "Dr. Knight and Sandy Burkhardt, both encouraged me by pulling me to the side and telling me I have what it takes to become what I want to be which is a clinical psychologist. They were there to lend an ear when I needed support. Still to this day, I consider them role models encouraging me to succeed. In turn, I have become a role model for some of the

students that have just started college in my Pilsen neighborhood. I am privileged to have this opportunity. It feels good to give back!"

Isolation did not seem to be an issue for the respondents within these urban institutions. Only one comment was made by Sandy: "In my speech class on campus most of the students are Anglo Saxon. There are times they treat us with indifference and are snobby. Other times they do not care, and want to learn the language from us."

Question 4: Does your institution have special programs that are helpful and supportive of your needs (PLUS, DALI, LEAP, LASO)?

Julie stated that "the LASO program is very supportive to the full time day students living on campus but not so much for the commuter student". Dante agrees with Julie that "the DALI organization on campus also is a waste of time for a commuter". Dan however, said, "The DALI program on campus helped me adjust to college life. It worked well for me." Connie stated that, "the tutoring program on campus helped me a lot, especially with my English. Workshops are terrific also. I take advantage of them when they are offered because they helped me get through some difficult areas of study due to my lack of skills in reading and writing." Special programs for these respondents apparently work very well for full time, on-campus students but may not be as helpful for commuter students.

Question 5: Is your family supportive of your educational endeavors?

Dante stated, "My parents have been very supportive. Neither of them have degrees. They have six children, four of which are in college currently. Both of my parents believe strongly in college." Alex said, "I have had the opportunity to go to

college with my parents' complete support. I am the youngest child in the family. All of my older siblings have their masters degree. They gave us opportunity they never had." Larry, on the other hand, had some conflicts to consider: "My parents are very supportive but also very demanding on the job. The responsibilities of my father's business are often overwhelming and leaves no time for study." Debbie states, "My parents do not understand the time necessary to get a degree. Education is a luxury in my mother's eyes. She is a widow and does not understand college." Julie says, "My parents are divorced and sending me to college was a never ending argument from both of them regarding tuition." Ruben says, "I am usually the only one in my classes that is first generation. My family is very supportive of my education. They understand the importance of getting a degree but do not understand that I have to take time out to study in order to achieve my goal." And finally, Dan talks about his family support: "My whole family is very supportive of my education. My community, my church, and my extended family is very proud of me, the first generation to get a degree. My family says I am the smartest and encourages me to do my best...I must succeed for the family and me!"

Overall Similarities between Campus and Survey Responses

The responses that were generated from these campus interviews were very similar to the responses on the written survey. The open-ended survey comments and personal interviews with the students indicated in greater detail that finances were a major concern for most of the Hispanic students. Support services were another concern, including faculty support, administrators, advisors and counselors. The lack

of time and time management were a concern also. The students did not feel they had enough time to get their studies completed because of other demands put on them by their families or institutions. And lastly, a major barrier for these respondents arose from family: (a) not understanding the demands of college, (b) concerned about preserving the machismo tradition, and (c) financial support from the family was not understood so the student had to work, attend classes, and take care of family priorities, as well as study. However, there were several families who were very encouraging and supportive of their student gaining an education.

The next chapter will provide a summary of the study, discuss the results of the data collected, and recommend both policy and future research considerations.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the research study conducted with Hispanic students in higher education and to present conclusions as they relate to the research questions that guided this study. Limitations of the study will be presented, and recommendations for both the development of institutional policies and additional research with Hispanic undergraduate students in higher education will be described.

Summary of the Study

Purpose

This study investigated whether a relationship exists between Hispanic student levels of biculturalism and perceived barriers that were reported to hinder their educational success in a university setting. The research identified a variety of academic, cultural, economic, social, and other barriers that Hispanic undergraduate students encountered at three private, religiously-affiliated, four-year universities in a major metropolitan area in the Midwest.

Hispanic students have been traditionally under-represented in higher education and those who attempt higher education often face many academic and social barriers after they enroll in higher education institutions. This study contributes to a better understanding of the obstacles Hispanic students experience and the development of

educational policies and procedures that will help them achieve their goals so they can become, with confidence, contributing members of society in the Twenty-first Century.

Hispanic students in higher education often are faced with living within two distinct cultures while trying to attain academic success in higher education. These students are sometimes literally caught between the Hispanic and Anglo cultures as they attempt to integrate their lives within a predominantly Anglo institution and at the same time, maintain their culture and traditions within their family value system. The term used in this study to describe the student's orientation to the two cultures is "biculturalism" (Ramirez, 1974, 1977, 1980, 1984). There are three types of biculturals, (a) Traditional Biculturals (those who associate primarily with Hispanic friends and adhere to traditional Hispanic values); (b) Atraditional Biculturals (those who are Anglo-oriented students who do not identify primarily with their Hispanic heritage but seek out Anglo friends generally); and (c) Balanced Biculturals (those who identify somewhat equally with both Anglo and Hispanic cultures). Ramirez (1980) maintains that Balanced biculturals attain a higher rate of success in higher education than either Traditional or Atraditional bicultural students.

Barriers facing Hispanic students were categorized using a typology developed by Cross (1981). "Situational" barriers relate to "one's situation or circumstances in life" (Cross, 1981, p. 98). An example is when the family does not understand the importance of a college education and the time and money required to earn it. "Institutional" barriers are policies, practices and procedures that either directly or

indirectly, exclude or discourage Hispanic students from fully participating in educational activities, both academic and social. Finally, "Dispositional" barriers, relate to attitudes and perceptions held about oneself as a learner (Cross, 1981).

Literature Review

The literature reviewed for this study focuses on the research related to Hispanic student biculturalism and the obstacles Hispanic students experience in higher education as they pursue their academic goals. The literature review contains three separate foci. One focus is on student-perceived barriers to success in higher education. The second reviews the research on Hispanic student biculturalism including studies that have been conducted in other geographic areas other than the Midwest (South and West). The third focus examined in the literature review of this study describes academic and social support programs developed by higher education institutions specifically for Hispanic students around the country.

Research Instrument

The survey instrument used in this study was developed by the researcher and contained four separate sections. The first section sought student and family demographic data regarding, in part, information on independent variables such as: age, gender, enrollment status (full-time/part-time), ethnicity, and generational status. The second section collected data relating to the extent of biculturalism among the Hispanic students who participated in the study. This section was adapted from the Multicultural Experience Inventory Scale developed by Ramirez (1974, 1977, 1980, 1984). The third section of the survey instrument contained a group of items asking

students to identify "levels of concern" they had with a variety of barriers experienced in the higher education setting. In order to identify these levels, a Likert scale was used ranging from 1 to 4: ("1" always a concern, "2" often a concern, "3" seldom a concern , or "4" never a concern). Examples of barriers found in this section include: Having enough money to pay tuition; Family understanding time demands a degree requires; Faculty listening when I ask a question; and Not feeling adequately prepared for college.

The fourth section of the survey instrument contained three open-ended questions. These questions were generated from a pilot study conducted with a small group of Hispanic students. The first question asked "Are there any additional barriers you (the student) have experienced in pursuing your degree that were not addressed?" The two remaining questions asked were "In what way(s) has your campus actually provided you with the support you need to pursue your degree ?" and "In what way(s) should your institution provide you with the additional support you need to complete your degree?"

Data Collection

A total of 1,612 Hispanic students were identified as being enrolled at the three selected universities in Spring 1993. A random sample of 716 students was chosen to be sent the survey instrument. A total of 345 students responded with useable surveys, thus producing a 48% response rate.

Campus interviews with selected student respondents were also conducted. A total of fifteen students were involved in the interviews, five from each university. Their comments both reinforced and expanded upon the survey data.

Data Analyses

Frequency distributions on all survey items were tabulated for the entire group of respondents. Descriptive statistics included means and standard deviations on both the dependent variables (barriers and biculturalism) and the independent variables (age, gender, enrollment status, ethnicity and generational status). Analysis of variance tests were conducted on the biculturalism and barrier data which revealed that a statistically significant relationship existed between the two variables. Separate Anovas were also conducted to test whether there was any significance between the dependent and independent variables. Both ethnicity and generational status revealed statistical significance between barriers and biculturalism. Age, gender and enrollment status did not reveal statistical significance.

Results

Descriptive Profile of Respondents

Of a total of 716 undergraduate Hispanic students who were mailed the survey instrument, 345 usable responses were received. This return established a rate of response of 48% which compares favorably with return rates for mail-out surveys to undergraduate students in other research studies. The respondents were predominantly female (70%), of traditional college age (69%), single (81%) and were full time enrolled (71%).

Three-fourths of the respondents were born in the United States with 79% born in the city of Chicago. Almost one in four (24%) indicated that they had immigrated to the United States and 52% of the total respondents reported being first generation citizens. Well over one-half of the respondents indicated that they were Mexican-American and 13% reported being Puerto Rican Islanders. When asked what ethnic label they preferred, 61% of the respondents stated that they preferred the term "Hispanic". Approximately one-half of the respondents report living in mostly or all Anglo neighborhoods (46%), whereas 25% report living in mostly or all Hispanic neighborhoods.

Biculturalism

Twenty-one survey items sought to ascertain the extent that students in this study identified primarily with either a "monoculture" or single culture (Hispanic or Anglo); or who identified with both cultures simultaneously. In this case, students would be labeled "balanced" biculturals.

On a Likert scale of "1" to "4", where a "1" represents full identification with a "Traditional" Hispanic culture and "4" represents identification with an "Atraditional" or Anglo culture, the overall mean for the 343 respondents was 2.82 (SD .538). This establishes this group of undergraduates as "Balanced" biculturals. More specifically, 60% of the respondents were determined to be balanced bicultuals (N=207), 35% were atraditional biculturals (N=121), and only 4% were traditional biculturals (N=15).

The proportion of men among the respondents decreases as they become more Atraditional. Likewise, the proportion of Puerto Rican respondents declines significantly from 25.7% (Traditional) to 5% (Atraditional). The proportion of Second and Third Generation students increases dramatically as they become more Atraditional in their cultual orientation. When mean biculturalism scores are examined for statistically significant differences according to Gender, Age, and Enrollment categories, no difference is found. Significant differences are found, however, when biculturalism scores are examined according to Generational Status and Ethnic Identity.

Barriers

Thirty-five survey items were designed to assess the extent that the respondents identified selected barriers as a major concern for them in completing their university education. An organizational framework (Cross, 1981) was utilized in dividing the barriers into three groups: situational, dispositional, and institutional.

As a full group the respondents reported that the total list of barriers was seldom a major concern ($\bar{X}$=2.99). However, there were differences noted among the three types of barriers. The barriers found in the Situational category are significantly more likely to present a major concern to women than to men. Traditional-aged students report that Institutional barriers are significantly more problematic for them than they are for older students. Similarly, Full-time students report that they have significantly greater concern with Institutional barriers than do Part-time students.

From the data it seems clear that among the three types of barriers, the Situational barriers related to a student's own situation or circumstance are the barriers that present the most concern. Barriers that revolve around personal financial circumstances clearly seem to be issues that may prevent these students from succeeding in their educational pursuits. The lack of finances lead students to work many hours each week thus preventing them from having the quality study time they need to succeed. Working also lengthens significantly the time required to complete a degree for these students. For some, the goal of earning a degree can seem far out of reach and this feeling can contribute to their giving up on their goals.

Interaction of Biculturalism and Barriers

The data analyses reveal statistically significant interactions between respondent level of bicultualism and reported barriers to success in higher education. "Traditional" biculturals reveal significantly more concern with all three types of barriers than did either the "Balanced" or the "Atraditional" biculturals. This finding is consistent with earlier research that reveals that students who have not integrated well within the predominant culture experience more problems in adjusting to the educational environment. Additionally, balanced biculturals reported higher levels of concern on all types of barriers than did atraditional bicultuals. Situational barriers were cited statistically more often as a major concern than were either Institutional or Dispositional barriers. The atraditional group of bicultuals reported the least concern with the three categories of barriers than did either of the other two groups of respondents.

Interviews

Personal interviews were conducted with five student respondents on each of the three university campuses. Five interview questions were generated by the researcher that focused on student perceptions of barriers and what their institution needed to do to meet their most pressing concerns. The results of the interviews confirmed that finances were of major concern to the Hispanic student population. Additionally, the need for greater support services provided by both academic and student affairs offices was noted. The students raised important issues around time management due to their need to work and the various demands placed upon them by their families.

Research Conclusions

Several important conclusions can be drawn from this study involving undergraduate Hispanic students in three urban, religiously-affiliated universities. The conclusions that follow will be presented in response to the major research questions that guided this study from its inception. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether a relationship existed in higher education between levels of Hispanic student biculturalism and Hispanic student perceptions of academic and social barriers affecting their success.

The first five research questions focus on the relationship of this study's five independent variables to student levels of biculturalism. The independent variables include: age, gender, enrollment status, ethnicity, and generational status.

The second group of five research questions focuses on the relationship of the five independent variables to student perceptions of three categories of barriers: situational, dispositional, and institutional.

The eleventh research question asks whether or not a relationship exists between student levels of biculturalism and their perceptions of barriers to educational success.

The final two research questions that guided this study focused on (a) the types of support students report are most needed at their institutions and (b) the types of support students report they are currently receiving from their institutions.

The conclusions that are derived from the analyses of the data in this study are organized around the research questions in four sections that follow:
(a) Biculturalism and independent variables; (b) Barriers and independent variables; (c) Relationship of biculturalism and barriers; and (d) Institutional support.

Biculturalism and the Independent Variables

Statistical tests were conducted to determine whether a significant relationship exists between respondent level of biculturalism and each of the five independent variables in this study: Gender, Age, Enrollment Status, Ethnicity, and Generational Status.

Three of the five variables were not found to have a significant relationship: Gender, Age, and Enrollment Status. Thus, one cannot conclude that for this group of undergraduate Hispanic students that any meaningful relationship exists between their level of biculturalism and their age, gender or enrollment status. However, a

statistically significant relationship was found between biculturalism and Generational Status and with Ethnicity.

It is clear from the data and the statistical testing of that data that one could conclude that as the respondents and their families spent more time in the United States that their biculturalism scores were more closely identified with the Atraditional (or Anglo) point on the biculturalism continuum. For example, Third Generation students were found to be significantly closer to the Atraditional end of the scale (Anglo end) that either First Generation, Immigrant, or Citizen students. Citizen students were those who had lived most of their lives in Puerto Rico. Even biculturalism levels for Second Generation students are significantly closer to the Atraditional end than for Immigrants.

These findings related to generational status are not surprising given that one would expect greater identification with and perhaps integration with the Anglo culture to be a function of time spent in the United States in general and in the American educational system in particular.

When the independent variable Ethnicity is compared to levels of biculturalism statistically significant results are found. For example, respondents who identified themselves as Puerto Rican had a biculturalism mean score that was closest to the Traditional end of the continuum (Hispanic end) than those who were Mexican, South American, or Other. This finding could possibly be explained by the extensive amount of time these respondents may have spent living in Puerto Rico before coming to the mainland United States. The data also reveal that there were significant

differences between respondents who were Mexican and those who were collapsed into a group labeled Other. The Mexican respondents had biculturalism mean scores closer on the continuum to the Traditional end than did the Other respondents. The Other category includes Central Americans, and Cuban/Cuban Americans.

A statistically significant relationship was also found between biculturalism and the ethnic composition of respondent neighborhoods. As one would expect, the data confirmed that respondents reporting that their neighborhoods and closest friends were either All or Mostly Hispanic had biculturalism levels that were, in relative terms, significantly closer to the Traditional end of the biculturalism continuum than those reporting neighborhoods and friends who were All or Mostly Anglo.

Barriers and Independent Variables

The second group of five research questions which guided this study examined the relationship of the five independent variables to the barriers that might get in the way of students achieving their educational goals. Three categories of barriers were identified using a typology first designed by Cross in 1981. These barriers categories include Situational, Institutional and Dispositional.

From the data analyses it cannot be concluded that any meaningful relationship exists between the Generational Status or the Ethnicity of the student respondents and types of barriers to educational success. However, statistically significantly results were found when barriers were compared to Gender, Age and Enrollment Status.

The level of concern expressed with Situational barriers was significantly higher for female students than for male students. A sample of items included in this

barrier category were: (a) Having enough money to pay tuition, books, and fees; (b) Having enough quality study time at home to complete assignments; and (c) Being able to afford full-time student status to get a degree sooner. There were no significant differences based on gender for either Institutional or Dispositional barrier categories. Thus, from these data one can conclude that female Hispanic students in this study report being more concerned (than male students) with barriers that arise from their own situation at home related to finances and family responsibilities.

Additional statistical analyses examining the relationship of respondent Age to barriers reveal that a meaningful relationship exists. For example, traditional- aged (18-24 Years) students (N=232) reported significantly more concern with barriers in the Institutional category than did older students who were 25 Years and Over (N=109). A sample of items found in the Institutional category include: (a) Receiving scholarships to help pay tuition; (b) Availability of Hispanic faculty as advisors and role models; and (c) Receiving a work-study or any other job on campus. While the financial issues are likely a major concern for all the student respondents in this study, it perhaps is reasonable to assume that older returning adult students may have made prior arrangements (through savings, loans, work, etc.) for their educational expenses than did younger, traditional-aged students who are heavily dependent on institutional aid and family financial support. This is especially true given that many of the older students are enrolled on a part-time basis; whereas, the majority of the traditional-aged students are enrolled full-time. Thus, the

traditional-aged student may be more affected by the absence of institutional aid. Likewise, while the need for good Hispanic role models among faculty and advisors exists for all students, it may be that older adult students, because of existing relationships with their adult friends and family or through the work place, may not believe they have as much a need for Hispanic role models on the campus as do younger, less experienced, traditional-aged students.

The data analyses that examined the relationship of barriers to Enrollment Status also found a significant relationship that is not surprising given the previous finding about age. From the analyses one can conclude that full-time enrolled students report having greater concern with Institutional barriers than do part-time enrolled students. Again, as stated above, the variable Enrollment Status seems in this study to be closely linked to the variable Age since the majority of full-time enrolled Hispanic students are of traditional age (18-25 Years). In this case, full-time enrollment seems linked to greater financial need for institutional aid and for Hispanic role models on the campus who can provide academic, social or other forms of support.

Relationship of Biculturalism and Barriers

The 11th research question that guided this study sought to ascertain whether a relationship exists between the extent of Hispanic student biculturalism and perceived barriers to higher education attainment. For analyses purposes, respondents were categorized as belonging to one of three biculturalism categories: Traditional (oriented primarily toward the Hispanic culture), Balanced (oriented to both the Hispanic and

Anglo culture) or Atraditional (oriented primarily to the Anglo culture). Barrier items on the survey instrument were also categorized into three types: Institutional, Situational and Dispositional (Cross, 1981). Multivariate tests of significance were conducted on the data and statistically significant results were found thus leading to the overall conclusion that, for this group of Hispanic undergraduate students, a meaningful relationship does exist between level of biculturalism and barriers identified as a concern.

When all categories of barriers are collapsed and taken as a whole, a significant relationship exists between the barriers and level of biculturalism among the respondents. For example, Traditional biculturals ($N=15$, $\bar{X}=2.46$) report significantly greater concern with barriers than do Balanced biculturals ($N=205$, $\bar{X}=2.92$) and Balanced biculturals report significantly greater concern with barriers than do Atraditional biculturals ($N=121$, $\bar{X}=3.17$). The general conclusion one can reach from this finding is that as undergraduate Hispanic students report increasing levels of identification with the Anglo culture they seem to have significantly less concern with barriers to their educational success.

When the barriers are organized into the three categories labeled Institutional, Dispositional and Situational, significant relationships are found to exist according to respondent level of biculturalism. For example, for all three categories of barriers Traditional biculturals report the most concern with each type of barriers than do either Balanced or Atraditional biculturals. At the same time, Balanced biculturals

also report greater levels of concern with all three types of barriers than do Atraditionals.

When mean scores for levels of concern with each category of barriers are examined, a notable finding reveals that Situational barriers are reported by respondents to be of the most concern across all three types of biculturals. Thus, it can be concluded that all students seem to be reporting that they are significantly concerned about those barriers that arise from their personal circumstances or situation in life including a variety of financial and other issues arising from family obligations and responsibilities. At the same time, one can also conclude that as respondents identify more and more with the traditional Hispanic culture, they report higher levels of concern with the Situational barriers.

Institutional Support

The final two research questions that guided this study sought open-ended information from the Hispanic undergraduate student respondents on two topics: (a) The specific types of support most needed by students and currently not being provided by their higher education institutions, and (b) The types of support students are currently receiving that are most helpful.

In response to the first topic, several themes emerged in the open-ended comments made by students (N=245, 71% of all respondents commented). These themes lead to several conclusions. For example, students indicated that they needed more institutionally-based financial aid to assist them with meeting their financial obligations. One respondent commented: "My institution should set up a scholarship

bank for needy students who can fill out general application forms and both administrators and counselors can help them find money for college through the different channels available on campus." They also reported that more and better informed advisors and counselors along with additional Hispanic counselors in particular are needed. A relevant comment from one student included the following: "My institution needs to find a better way of communicating with the students. At times vital information was received too late, regarding scholarships, class changes, social activities, tutoring, and job openings." A third theme identified the need for more Hispanic faculty who understand the unique needs of the students and who can provide role models on the campus. One comment from a respondent seems to summarize this latter need: "I noticed that most Hispanic professors are in the Spanish department. It would be most encouraging to see Hispanic professors in other academic and administrative areas of the university." A few student respondents also commented that they were concerned that the Latino community was being singled out for special attention and they preferred to be treated the same as any other student would be treated.

The second topic on which student respondents commented revealed the types of support programs students currently were receiving on their campuses that they believed were effective and helpful. A vast majority of the respondents (N=285, 83%) commented on this open-ended portion of the survey. Overall, the conclusion that can be reached is that these students report feeling very positive about and

satisfied with the nature and level of services their institutions were providing to them.

While a need for greater financial aid was clearly reported as a current need of these students, at the same time, a large number report that they appreciated the financial assistance they had been receiving from their institutions. Several very positive comments were reported. A second theme that emerged related to helpful and effective advising, tutoring and counseling programs provided by the institution. Again, the respondents provided many very positive comments about the types of academic and personal support services provided. A third theme that emerged related to the support and helpfulness of faculty. Student commentary revealed that faculty were supportive, encouraging, motivating, understanding, and available to students.

From the above open-ended data, one can conclude that large numbers of students report both appreciation and support for the institutional programs currently in operation on their campuses while at the same time sending a clear message that more of these programs are necessary in order to meet their academic, social and financial needs in the future.

Limitations of the Study

A number of limitations are reported in this section that could affect the interpretation of results found in this study of Hispanic undergraduate students.

1. The number of respondents who were computed (based on their survey responses) to be in the Traditional bicultural category (that most closely aligned with the Hispanic culture) was very small in comparison to the other two groups of

biculturals. Only 15 Traditional biculturals were identified. While this number was large enough for conducting various statistical tests on differences between means, it is still such a small proportion of the total group of respondents as to call into question findings involving the Traditional biculturals. Any results focused on this group of biculturals should be treated quite cautiously.

2. Some students may have inaccurately self-identified themselves on the variable Generational Status. If respondents did not carefully read the researcher's definition for "Citizen" (i.e., born in the U.S. but lived considerable period of time in Puerto Rico), they may have self-identified themselves as Citizens instead of some other more accurate category. It is not clear whether this error occurred or not but it is a distinct possibility.

3. The Likert scale used for assessing level of respondent concern with barriers may have affected some of the findings. For example, each point on the 4-point scale asks respondents to reveal to what extent each barrier is "a major concern for me." In retrospect, the scale could have been changed in two ways to ensure a more accurate response from students. First, providing respondents with a 5- or 6- point scale for their response might have provided students with more ground on which to assess each barrier. Second, the term "major" probably should not have been used since this qualifier may have altered student perceptions of how to respond. For example, a particular barrier might have been "often" a concern, but not necessarily often a "major concern". Future editions of the survey instrument used in this study should take this limitation into account.

4. A fourth limitation may involve the relatively small rate of response received for the survey instrument (48%). Although the Dillman (1978) method for mail surveys was followed diligently by the researcher, only one out of every two students chose to respond. One reason for such a low response rate may have been due to the fact that the survey instrument was written in English. Given the overall size of the responding group, however, the researcher still believes that a critical mass of undergraduate Hispanic students was identified for this research and that the findings can be generalized to all students selected in this study's sample.

5. Finally, while a critical number of respondents was included in the study, a further limitation of this study is that the results about undergraduate Hispanic students cannot be generalized beyond the religiously-affiliated, urban university setting.

Recommendations

The analyses and conclusions reached from the data collected in this study lead the researcher to offer several recommendations related to policy and programmatic development in institutions of higher education as well as in the area of future research. These recommendations are presented in the two sections that follow.

Recommendations for Institutional Policy

1. Institutions should carefully review all existing financial aid programs for minority students, especially those targeted towards Hispanic students. Clearly, institutional support in the area of finances is a major barrier to success for these students. In particular, programs that provide on-campus work-study opportunities

would be a preferred program over loans for these students. On-campus work programs provide students with an opportunity to develop closer ties with at least one department or program within the institution and have the added benefit of not needing to be repaid upon graduation.

2. Financial aid program information should be made readily available to both students and their parents in a timely manner and should be written in both English as well as Spanish so that parents can fully understand the various federal, state and institutional programs that are available. As part of this recommendation, institutions should ask financial aid staff to conduct workshops and information sessions for students and parents both at the institution as well as in Hispanic community agencies, schools and churches so that this information can be disseminated effectively to students and parents.

3. It is important that institutions develop many different programs that address the needs of both Hispanic students and their parents related to the higher education experience. For example, summer or fall orientation programs for new students should have special components directed toward providing useful information to parents and other family members of Hispanic students. Parents and families should be invited to come to campus throughout the academic year so that they can become familiar with university life experienced by their students. An informative newsletter for parents that is mailed to each student's home at least once a semester is recommended and should be made available in Spanish as well as in English.

4. It is recommended that institutions act affirmatively to recruit and retain qualified Hispanic faculty and staff who can serve as role models and advisers for undergraduate students on the campus. It is clear from the data that many respondents in this study felt the addition of role models from the Hispanic community would foster feelings of belongingness on the predominantly Anglo campus.

5. Many student respondents reported experiencing incidents of discrimination, harassment and racism related to their ethnicity. Institutions serious about combatting a racially hostile educational environment for these students should develop a comprehensive plan for educating the entire campus community about Hispanic culture, history and traditions. Students, faculty and others on the campus should have opportunities to celebrate the many contributions made to the American society by the Hispanic community. These programs hopefully will lead to Hispanic students feeling more valued and understood on the university campus thus leading to feelings of belongingness and true membership in the university community.

6. Institutions should develop information-based programs that reach out into the Hispanic community. These programs should be directed towards students and their families well before the students are seniors in high school. In fact, middle school students and their parents could benefit from learning about the university experience and how best to begin to prepare for admission to the university in terms of both academic as well as financial preparation. Additionally, it is important that Hispanic families be provided information that will convey the value and importance

of a university education for their children. One of the barriers frequently mentioned by respondents in this study was that parents often times did not appreciate or understand the demands of the students' time while at the university. Hispanic community leaders who have had positive college or university experiences should be enlisted to assist with the effort to meet with parents and to provide them with information about the university experience.

7. The results of this study also indicate that institutions should be especially knowledgeable about the demographics of their Hispanic students, especially with regard to ethnicity and generational status. The study's results reveal that students who have been in the United States for the least amount of time (Immigrants, First Generation, Puerto Rican Citizens) may have more adjustment problems within the university environment than would other Hispanic students who are Second or Third Generation Americans. Related to the above, those students who self- report their ethnicity as Puerto Rican and who may have resided in Puerto Rico for many years are also possibly a greater risk for adjustment within the university environment. Special programs or advising support should be made available to these students as they enter the university.

8. Finally women Hispanic students report much greater concern with Situational barriers than do men and thus these women students may be at greater risk for retention within the university environment due to family-related demands at home. It is critical then that institutions maintain close contact with these students to

ascertain the level of concern they are experiencing at home to provide support and assistance in responding to those concerns.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. The current study should be replicated with undergraduate Hispanic students but the focus should on students in different sectors of higher education including: (a) Urban, public four-year universities, (b) Urban, public two-year colleges, (c) Suburban/rural, religiously-affiliated colleges and universities, and (d) Suburban/rural public two-year colleges. The results of the current study can then be compared to results from the other sectors to see what, if any, significant differences exist in levels of biculturalism and barriers experienced.

2. The current study should be replicated with students of color representing other racial/ethnic groups including: Native Americans, African Americans, and Asian Americans. The results should then be compared to the current study of undergraduate Hispanic students to see what, if any, significant differences may exist.

3. The current study's focus on biculturalism and barriers for undergraduate Hispanic students could be examined again, but this time with an entirely different methodology in order to see what similarities might be found, if any. It is recommended that an institutional case study method would be employed where the researcher would collect qualitative data through lengthy interviews and observations of Hispanic students within a single university environment. It would be interesting to see whether similar results would be obtained using the case study method.

4. Another potential study that could be built upon the results of the current study would involve investigating the perceptions held by Anglo students of the Hispanic students experience within the predominantly-Anglo university environment. It would be interesting to gather data to see if Anglo students hold accurate perceptions of the Hispanic student experience or not.

5. Finally, another study could be focused upon those Hispanic students in this study who reported resentment in being singled out by their institutions of higher learning for special programs and support. It would be interesting to determine what past experiences these students may have had that have led them to conclude that institutions should not single out any minority group for special assistance.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the thrust of this study focused on examining whether a relationship exists between biculturalism and barriers to educational success among Hispanic undergraduate students. This research affirmed that indeed a relationship does seem to exist between biculturalism and barriers. Financial issues and discrimination on the campus are still major barriers to success in higher education for Hispanic undergraduate students.

A study conducted in 1980, be the Hispanic Alliance Consortium, showed similar results to this study. Five major barriers to educational success in higher education were found in the 1980 study: (a) financial; (b) under-preparation for college; (c) the lack of career choice information; (d) stress of choosing between

two cultures; and (e) colleges not aware of Hispanic student needs, (Navarrete, C., personal communication, 1992).

Institutional responses have been to blame the victim for lack of language skills, low test grade scores, high drop out rates, lack of role models, and low teacher expectations which affect their educational outcomes. The problems identified in 1980 are serious and still exist today. It is time for educators and administrators to look carefully at their own institutions. Higher education needs to find ways to change so as not to put the entire burden of cultural acceptance and educational success in higher education on the students alone.

APPENDIX A.

LETTER OF PERMISSION TO USE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

March 17, 1995

Ms. Lynn A. Werner
Doctoral Candidate
Loyola University Chicago
568 W. Arlington Place
Chicago, Illinois 60614

Dear Ms. Werner,

This letter is in response to your request for permission to use my Bicultural/Multicultural Experience Inventory (B/MEI) Scale in your dissertation. I have looked over your survey instrument and give my permission as requested. Good luck in your defense.

Sincerely,

Dr. Manuel Ramirez III
Professor
Psychology Department
University of Texas at Austin
Austin, TX 78712

APPENDIX B.
PILOT SURVEY INSTRUMENT

PILOT RESEARCH
March 25, 1993

DEAR STUDENT,

I am a doctoral student in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at Loyola University Chicago. As part of the requirements for my doctoral degree, I am conducting a research study with Latino students in higher education.

Attached is a survey instrument designed for Latino undergraduate students attending higher education institutions in Chicago.

The purpose of this survey is to investigate whether a relationship exists between your cultural orientation (background & heritage) and your perceptions of activities both in the classroom (academic) and in your social interactions on campus that may hinder your progress toward getting a degree. Some of the variables I will be investigating are age, gender, ethnicity, and generational differences.

The reason this research is being conducted is to carefully examine the issues you face as a university student and learn from them. Administrators, faculty, and staff need a deeper understanding of your individual needs in order to assist you in meeting your academic, career, and social goals.

This research project is for that purpose only and all information will remain anonymous and strictly confidential. I have spent a lot of time researching these issues and would be happy to answer any questions you may have regarding the survey. I really appreciate the time and effort you will provide in assisting with this research project. THANKS again for your time!

Angela Eames, Dean of Multicultural Affairs, Loyola University; Sandra Cook, Dean, Mundelein College-Loyola; Carmen Navarette, Mundelein College-Loyola; and Steve Murphy and Rebecca Gara, Saint Xavier University; all encourage you to fill out this survey for the benefit of every Latino student in higher education at religious affiliated institutions n Chicago.

Sincerely,

Lynn Werner
Doctoral Candidate-Loyola University Chicago
312-528-8750

PART ONE: Please answer the following.

1. Age: 18 - 24 _____ or 25 and over _____

2. Gender: ____ Male ____ Female

3. Place of birth _____
city state country

4. Father's Place of Birth: _____
city state country

5. Mother's Place of Birth: _____
city state country

6. Are you part time enrolled _____, or are you full time enrolled_____? (check one)

7. Are you....
Immigrant____ (you were born outside of the U.S. and moved to the U.S.)
1st generation____ (you were first to be born in U.S.)
2nd generation____ (your parents were born in U.S.)
3rd generation____ (your grandparents were born in U.S.)

8. Do you consider yourself:
a. ___ Central American
b. ___ Cuban
c. ___ Mexican
d. ___ Puerto Rican
e. ___ South American
f. ___ Other(s)_____(specify)

9. Identify culture(s) within your local neighborhood or community: (check all that apply)
a. ___ African American
b. ___ Central American
c. ___ Cuban/Cuban American
d. ___ Mexican/Mexican American
e. ___ Puerto Rican Island/Mainland
f. ___ South American
g. ___ Other(s) _____(specify)

10. What do you prefer to be called? (circle only one)

a. Chicano(a) b. Hispanic c. Latino(a)
d. Other_____(specify)

11. How many brothers do you have? _____
    a. How many sisters? _____

12. How many brothers now live at home? _____
    a. How many sisters? _____

13. What is your marital status? (check one):
    a.____never married d.____separated
    b.____divorced e.____widowed
    c.____married

14. If you are (were) married, what is (was) the ethnic background of your spouse? (check one):
    a.____ Hispanic d.____ African American
    b.____ Asian American e.____ Native American
    c.____ Anglo/White f.____ Other:_____ (specify)

15. What language(s) does your father speak at home_____?

16. What language(s) does your mother speak at home_____?

17. What language(s) do you speak? _____?

18. Which language are you most comfortable with?
    _____

19. How well do you speak Spanish? (check one):
    a.___very fluently
    b.___somewhat fluently
    c.___can speak only basic words and phrases
    d.___can understand it but can't speak it
    e.___no knowledge of Spanish

20. How many years have you lived in the United States? ____
    In what areas:
    a. ___ Rural
    b. ___ Urban
    c. ___ Suburban

21. Do you have relatives/friends who live in another country? (check one): a.___ yes b. ___ no
    c. If yes, in which country_____?

22. What is the highest level of education achieved by each of your parents/guardians? (check one in each column):

	Father/ guardian	Mother/ guardian
a. Elementary school	a. _____	a.
b. Some high school	b. _____	b.
c. High school graduate	c. _____	c.
d. Some college	d. _____	d.
e. College graduate	e. _____	e.
f. Advanced degree (Masters, Ph.D.)	f. _____	f.

NOTE: ANSWER EITHER 25 or 26 not both.

23. Parent/Guardian income level? (check one below)

Below - $ 10,000	a. _____
$ 10,000 - $20,000	b. _____
$ 21,000 - $30,000	c. _____
$ 31,000 - $40,000	d. _____
$ 41,000 - $55,000	e. _____
Above - $56,000	f. _____
Don't know	g. _____

PART TWO: Please answer the following questions related to your cultural experiences on campus and home. Check the one response that is most appropriate for you.

24. The ethnic composition of the neighborhood I now live in:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

25. At present, the majority of my closest friends are:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

26. In high school, my close friends were:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

27. The people with whom I have established close and meaningful relationships have been:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

28. When I am with my friends, I usually attend social gatherings where the people are:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

29. My closest friends at my job are:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

30. I enjoy going to gatherings at which the people are:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

31. The people who have most influenced me in my education have been:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

32. When I study with others, I usually study with:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

33. In the job(s) I have had, my close friends have been:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

34. When I am involved in group discussions where I am expected to participate, I prefer a group made up of:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

35. The teachers and counselors with whom I have had the closest relationships have been:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

36. When I discuss personal problems or issues, (other than with my family), I discuss them with:
___ 1. All Hispanic
___ 2. Mostly Hispanic
___ 3. Hispanic, Anglo, about equal
___ 4. Mostly Anglo
___ 5. All Anglo

37. When I write personal material (letters, cards, etc), I write in:
___ 1. Spanish
___ 2. Mostly Spanish
___ 3. Spanish and English, about equal.
___ 4. Mostly English
___ 5. English only

38. I attend social gatherings that are predominantly Anglo in nature:
___ 1. Extensively
___ 2. Frequently
___ 3. Occasionally
___ 4. Seldom
___ 5. Never

39. I attend social gatherings that are predominantly Hispanic in nature:
___ 1. Extensively
___ 2. Frequently
___ 3. Occasionally
___ 4. Seldom
___ 5. Never

40. I visit the home of Anglos who are not relatives:
___ 1. Very Often
___ 2. Often
___ 3. Occasionally
___ 4. Seldom
___ 5. Never

41. I invite Anglos who are not relatives to my home:
___ 1. Very Often
___ 2. Often
___ 3. Occasionally
___ 4. Seldom
___ 5. Never

42. I visit the home of Hispanics who are not relatives:
___ 1. Very Often
___ 2. Often
___ 3. Occasionally
___ 4. Seldom
___ 5. Never

43. I invite Hispanics who are not relatives to my home:
___ 1. Very Often
___ 2. Often
___ 3. Occasionally
___ 4. Seldom/Never

44. I visit relatives and/or close friends in Mexico/Puerto Rico or other Latin American countries:
___ 1. Very often (several times a year)
___ 2. Often (two/three times a year)
___ 3. Occasionally (once a year)
___ 4. Seldom (less than once a year)
___ 5. Never

45. Relatives and/or close friends from Mexico/Puerto Rico or other countries of Latin America visit me:
___ 1. Very often (several times a year)
___ 2. Often (two/three times a year)
___ 3. Occasionally (once a year)
___ 4. Seldom (less than once a year)
___ 5. Never

PART THREE: There are several reasons why students may not complete a program of study or might withdraw altogether from college. The following are some examples of obstacles that could possibly deter you from completing a bachelor's degree. From the list below identify the degree to which these obstacles <u>either have been or are now</u> a major concern for you.

Please respond by circling a number using the following scale.

1 = Always a major concern for me
2 = Often a major concern for me
3 = Seldom a major concern for me
4 = Never a major concern for me

A). 1 2 3 4 Having enough quality study time at home to complete my weekly assignments.

B). 1 2 3 4 Feeling sufficiently prepared academically for college level work.

C). 1 2 3 4 Having enough writing skills to complete college level papers/reports.

D). 1 2 3 4 Finishing my academic degree in a reasonable time frame because of job and home duties.

E). 1 2 3 4 Having enough money to pay tuition, books and fees.

F). 1 2 3 4 Family understanding my need for a social life on campus.

G). 1 2 3 4 Demands put upon me because of child care responsibilities.

H). 1 2 3 4 Family approval of academic time demands getting a degree requires.

I). 1 2 3 4 Being able to afford full-time student status so I can get my degree in 4 years.

J). 1 2 3 4 Having enough money for good as well as convenient child care so I can attend college.

K). 1 2 3 4 Convincing my family that higher education is important and necessary.

L). 1 2 3 4 Feeling discouraged due to length of time it takes to get a degree.

M). 1 2 3 4 Friends and peers at times make me feel being in college is not where I belong.

N). 1 2 3 4 Feeling unsure of my academic goals.

SCALE:
1 = Always a major concern for me
2 = Often a major concern for me
3 = Seldom a major concern for me
4 = Never a major concern for me

O). 1 2 3 4 At times, feeling that I cannot compete academically with other students.

P). 1 2 3 4 Having a lack of confidence in my abilities while I'm taking a test.

Q). 1 2 3 4 Being uncomfortable when called upon to respond in class.

V). 1 2 3 4 Staying motivated to get a degree because I feel I have to work twice as hard as anybody else.

W). 1 2 3 4 Family creating tension and stress for me affects my campus life.

X). 1 2 3 4 Getting my parents to accept my going to college when my other siblings are treated much differently.

Y). 1 2 3 4 Feeling I'm too old to learn and can't grasp information as quickly.

Z). 1 2 3 4 Feeling isolated like I don't belong on my own campus.

AA). 1 2 3 4 Having faculty listen when I asked questions or express concerns in class.

BB). 1 2 3 4 Having Hispanic student adviser or counselor available on campus.

CC). 1 2 3 4 Feeling uncomfortable with hostilities toward Latinos in the academic environment.

DD). 1 2 3 4 Having personal conflicts with peers on campus.

EE). 1 2 3 4 Having other Hispanic students around on campus with whom to interact and receive support.

FF). 1 2 3 4 Experiencing an unequal quality of teaching on campus.

SCALE:
1 = Always a major concern for me
2 = Often a major concern for me
3 = Seldom a major concern for me
4 = Never a major concern for me

GG). 1 2 3 4 Experiencing isolation and loneliness on campus.

HH). 1 2 3 4 Receiving scholarships to help pay tuition.

II). 1 2 3 4 Receiving a work-study or any other job on campus.

JJ). 1 2 3 4 Availability of courses to help me become more proficient in English.

KK). 1 2 3 4 Availability of Hispanic faculty to serve as academic advisors and role models.

PART IV COMMENT SECTION

1. In what ways has your campus actually provided you with the support you need to pursue your degree? (be specific as possible i.e. financial aid, campus counseling/tutoring, understanding faculty, social organizations, admission procedures, etc. Use top of next page also for your response)

2. In what ways should your institution provide you with the additional support you need to complete your degree? (Try to be as specific as possible, use reverse side if necessary)

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO LEWIS TOWERS CAMPUS

Please indicate below if you would be interested in being interviewed for thirty minutes on your campus by this researcher to further discuss how universities can respond to Hispanic student needs.

_____ YES, please contact me
_____ NO, please do not contact me

If yes, please complete the following: PLEASE PRINT

Name _____

Address _____

Phone: work #_____
(area code)
home #_____
(area code)

Thank you for all your help!

Please return your survey to _____
Loyola University Chicago

APPENDIX C.

COVER LETTER

April 28, 1993

DEAR DEPAUL STUDENT,

As a doctoral student in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at Loyola University Chicago, I am conducting a research study with Latino students in higher education.

The purpose of this research is to investigate whether a relationship exists between your cultural background and your perceptions of university activities **that may help or hinder** your progress toward getting a degree. Some of the variables I will be investigating are age, gender, ethnicity, part-time versus full-time enrollment, and generational differences.

This research examines issues you face as a university student. Administrators, faculty and staff need a deeper understanding of your individual needs in order to assist you in meeting your academic, career and personal goals.

Enclosed is a survey instrument which I ask you to complete and return directly to me in the envelope provided. The survey information you provide will remain strictly confidential. Please note that the number code on the survey is for follow-up purposes ONLY.

Please note the enclosed letters of support from Bill Smyser-Admissions and Rebecca Perdes-Alvin, Hispanic Alliance, DePaul University Chicago.

I really appreciate the time (about 20 minutes) and effort you will provide in assisting with this research project. I would like you to **return this survey to me by MAY 15th, in the envelope provided**. I do understand final exams are coming up soon, however, your cooperation on this survey would be of value to all Latino students.

Please fee free to call me at 312-528-8750 (h) or 312-337-5131 (w) if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Lynn Werner
Doctoral Candidate
Educational Leadership & Policy Studies
Loyola University Chicago

April 28, 1993

DEAR LOYOLA STUDENT,

As a doctoral student in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at Loyola University Chicago, I am conducting a research study with Latino students in higher education.

The purpose of this research is to investigate whether a relationship exists between your cultural background and your perceptions of university activities **that may help or hinder** your progress toward getting a degree. Some of the variables I will be investigating are age, gender, ethnicity, part-time versus full-time enrollment, and generational differences.

This research examines issues you face as a university student. Administrators, faculty and staff need a deeper understanding of your individual needs in order to assist you in meeting your academic, career and personal goals.

Enclosed is a survey instrument which I ask you to complete and return directly to me in the envelope provided. The survey information you provide will remain strictly confidential. Please note that the number code on the survey is for follow-up purposes ONLY.

Please note the enclosed letter of support from Angeles Eames, Dean of Multicultural Affairs, Loyola University Chicago.

I really appreciate the time (about 20 minutes) and effort you will provide in assisting with this research project. I would like you to **return this survey to me by MAY 15th, in the envelope provided**. I do understand final exams are coming up soon, however, your cooperation on this survey would be of value to all Latino students.

Please fee free to call me at 312-528-8750 (h) or 312-337-5131 (w) if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Lynn Werner
Doctoral Candidate
Educational Leadership & Policy Studies
Loyola University Chicago

April 28, 1993

DEAR SAINT XAVIER STUDENT,

As a doctoral student in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at Loyola University Chicago, I am conducting a research study with Latino students in higher education.

The purpose of this research is to investigate whether a relationship exists between your cultural background and your perceptions of university activities **that may help or hinder** your progress toward getting a degree. Some of the variables I will be investigating are age, gender, ethnicity, part-time versus full-time enrollment, and generational differences.

This research examines issues you face as a university student. Administrators, faculty and staff need a deeper understanding of your individual needs in order to assist you in meeting your academic, career and personal goals.

Enclosed is a survey instrument which I ask you to complete and return directly to me in the envelope provided. The survey information you provide will remain strictly confidential. Please note that the number code on the survey is for follow-up purposes ONLY.

Please note the enclosed letter of support from Rebecca Guerra, Hispanic Alliance Liaison, Saint Xavier University Chicago.

I really appreciate the time (about 20 minutes) and effort you will provide in assisting with this research project. I would like you to **return this survey to me by MAY 15th, in the envelope provided**. I do understand final exams are coming up soon, however, your cooperation on this survey would be of value to all Latino students.

Please fee free to call me at 312-528-8750 (h) or 312-337-5131 (w) if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Lynn Werner
Doctoral Candidate
Educational Leadership & Policy Studies
Loyola University Chicago

APPENDIX D.

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

HISPANIC STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF BARRIERS TO SUCCESS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

PART ONE: Please answer the following.

1. Age: 18 - 24 _____ or 25 and over _____
2. Gender: _____ Male _____ Female
3. Place of Birth: _____
   city state country
4. Father's Place of Birth: _____
   city state country
5. Mother's Place of Birth: _____
   city state country
6. Are you part-time enrolled _____ or are you full time enrolled _____ ? (Check one)
7. Are you . . .
   a. _____ Immigrant-born outside of the U.S. and moved to the U.S.
   b. _____ Citizen-born in the U.S. yet lived extended period(s) of time on the island of Puerto Rico.
   c. _____ 1st generation-you were first to be born in U.S.
   d. _____ 2nd generation-your parents were born in U.S.
   e. _____ 3rd generation-your grandparents were born in U.S.
8. Do you consider yourself:
   a. _____ African American
   b. _____ Central American
   c. _____ Cuban/Cuban American
   d. _____ Mexican/Mexican American/Chicano
   e. _____ Puerto Rican
   f. _____ South American
   g. _____ Other(s) _____ (specify)
9. Identify culture(s) within your local neighborhood or community: (check all that apply)
   a. _____ African American
   b. _____ Central American
   c. _____ Cuban/Cuban American
   d. _____ Mexican/Mexican American
   e. _____ Puerto Rican Island/Mainland
   f. _____ South American
   g. _____ Other(s) _____ (specify)
10. What do you prefer to be called? (circle only one)
    a. Chicano(a) _____ b. Hispanic _____ c. Latino(a) _____ d. Other _____
    (specify)
11. a. How many brothers do you have? _____
    b. How many sisters? _____
12. a. How many brothers now live at home? _____
    b. How many sisters? _____

13. What is your marital status? (check one):

a. _____ never married c. _____ married e. _____ widowed

b. _____ divorced d. _____ separated

14. If you are (were) married, what is (was) the ethnic background of your spouse? (check one):

a. _____ Hispanic c. _____ Anglo/White e. _____ Native American

b. _____ Asian American d. _____ African American f. _____ Other: _____

(specify)

15. What language(s) does your father speak at home? _____

16. What language(s) does your mother speak at home? _____

17. What language(s) do you speak? _____

18. Which languages are you most comfortable with? _____ English _____ Spanish _____ Both

19. If married, what is the language spoken in your home? _____

20. If you have children, what languages are spoken in your home? _____

21. How well do you speak Spanish (check one):

a. _____ very fluently

b. _____ somewhat fluently

c. _____ can speak only basic words and phrases

d. _____ can understand it but can't speak it

e. _____ no knowledge of Spanish

22. How many years have you lived in the United States? _____ In what areas:

a. _____ Rural b. _____ Urban c. _____ Suburban

23. Do you have relatives/friends who live in another country? (check one): a. _____ Yes b. _____ No

If yes, in which country? _____

24. What is the highest level of education achieved by each of your parents/guardians? (check one in each column):

	Father/Guardian	Mother/Guardian
a. Elementary school	a. _____	a. _____
b. Some high school	b. _____	b. _____
c. High school graduate	c. _____	c. _____
d. Some college	d. _____	d. _____
e. College graduate	e. _____	e. _____
f. Advanced degree (Master, Ph.D.)	f. _____	f. _____

NOTE: ANSWER EITHER 25 OR 26 - NOT BOTH.

25. If you maintain your own home, what is your family income level? (check one)

Below - $10,000 a. _____ $31,000 - $40,000 d. _____

$10,000 - $20,000 b. _____ $41,000 - $55,000 e. _____

$21,000 - $30,000 c. _____ Above - $56,000 f. _____

26. If you live with a parent or guardian, what is the household income level? (check one)

Below - $10,000 a. _____ $41,000 - $55,000 e. _____

$10,000 - $20,000 b. _____ Above - $56,000 f. _____

$21,000 - $30,000 c. _____ Don't Know g. _____

$31,000 - $40,000 d. _____

PART TWO: Please answer the following relating to your cultural experiences on campus and home.

Check the one response that is most appropriate for you.

27. The ethnic composition of the neighborhood I now live in:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

28. At present, the majority of my closest friends are:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

29. In high school, my close friends were:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

30. The people with whom I have established close and meaningful relationships have been:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

31. When I am with my friends, I usually attend social gatherings where the people are:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

32. I enjoy going to gatherings at which the people are:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

33. The people who have most influenced me in my education have been:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

34. When I study with others, I usually study with:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

35. In the job(s) I have had, my close friends have been:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

36. When I am involved in group discussions where I am expected to participate, I prefer a group made up of:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

37. The teachers and counselors with whom I have had the closest relationships have been:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

38. When I discuss personal problems or issues, (other than with my family), I discuss them with:
    a. _____ All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
    b. _____ Mostly Hispanic
    c. _____ Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
    e. _____ Mostly Asian American
    f. _____ Mostly African American

39. When I write personal material (letters, cards, etc.), I write in:
    a. _____ Spanish
    b. _____ Mostly Spanish
    c. _____ Spanish and English, about equal
    d. _____ Mostly or All English

40. I attend social gatherings that are predominantly **ANGLO** in nature:

a. _____ Extensively
b. _____ Frequently
c. _____ Occasionally
d. _____ Seldom/Never

41. I attend social gatherings that are predominantly **HISPANIC** in nature:

a. _____ Extensively
b. _____ Frequently
c. _____ Occasionally
d. _____ Seldom/Never

42. I visit the homes of anglos who are not relatives:

a. _____ Extensively
b. _____ Frequently
c. _____ Occasionally
d. _____ Seldom/Never

43. I invite Anglos who are not relatives to my home:

a. _____ Extensively
b. _____ Frequently
c. _____ Occasionally
d. _____ Seldom/Never

44. I visit the home of Hispanics who are not relatives:

a. _____ Extensively
b. _____ Frequently
c. _____ Occasionally
d. _____ Seldom/Never

45. I invite Hispanics who are not relatives to my home:

a. _____ Extensively
b. _____ Frequently
c. _____ Occasionally
d. _____ Seldom/Never

46. I visit relatives and/or close friends in Mexico/Puerto Rico or other Latin American countries:

a. _____ Very often (several times a year)
b. _____ Often (two/three times a year)
c. _____ Occasionally (once a year)
d. _____ Seldom (once in three years), or Never

47. Relatives and/or close friends from Mexico/Puerto Rico or other countries of Latin America visit me:

a. _____ Very often (several times a year)
b. _____ Often (two/three times a year)
c. _____ Occasionally (once a year)
d. _____ Seldom (once in three years), or Never

PART THREE: There are several reasons why students may not complete a program of study or might withdraw altogether from college. The following are some examples of obstacles that could possibly deter you from completing a bachelor's degree. From the list below, identify the degree to which these obstacles either have been or are now a major concern for you.

Please respond by circling a number using the following scale: 1 = Always a major concern for me
2 = Often a major concern for me
3 = Seldom a major concern for me
4 = Never a major concern for me

A.	1	2	3	4	Having enough quality study time at home to complete my weekly assignments.
B.	1	2	3	4	Feeling sufficiently prepared academically for college level work.
C.	1	2	3	4	Having enough writing skills to complete college level work.
D.	1	2	3	4	Finishing my academic degree in a reasonable time frame because of job and home duties
E.	1	2	3	4	Having enough money to pay tuition, books and fees.
F.	1	2	3	4	Family understanding my need for a social life on campus.
G.	1	2	3	4	Demands put upon me because of child care responsibilities.
H.	1	2	3	4	Family approval of academic time demands getting a degree requires.
I.	1	2	3	4	Being able to afford full-time student status so I can get my degree in 4 years.
J.	1	2	3	4	Having enough money for good as well as convenient child care so I can attend college.
K.	1	2	3	4	Convincing my family that higher education is important and needed.
L.	1	2	3	4	Feeling discouraged due to length of time it takes to get a degree.
M.	1	2	3	4	Faculty and other university personnel make me feel that being in college is not where I belong.
N.	1	2	3	4	Feeling unsure of my academic goals.
O.	1	2	3	4	At times, feeling that I cannot compete academically with other students.
P.	1	2	3	4	Having a lack of confidence in my abilities while I'm taking a test.
Q.	1	2	3	4	Being uncomfortable when called upon to respond in class.
R.	1	2	3	4	Staying motivated to get a degree because I feel I have to work twice as hard as anybody else.
S.	1	2	3	4	Family creating tension and stress for me affects my campus life.
T.	1	2	3	4	Getting my parents to accept my going to college when my other siblings are treated much differently.
U.	1	2	3	4	Feeling I'm too old to learn and can't grasp information as quickly.
V.	1	2	3	4	Feeling that my campus is a welcoming place.
W.	1	2	3	4	Having faculty listen when I ask questions or express concerns in class.
X.	1	2	3	4	Having Hispanic student advisor or counselor available on campus.
Y.	1	2	3	4	Feeling uncomfortable with hostilities toward Latinos in the academic environment.
Z.	1	2	3	4	Having personal conflicts with peers on campus.
AA.	1	2	3	4	Having other Hispanic students around on campus with whom to interact and receive support.
BB.	1	2	3	4	Experiencing an unequal quality of teaching on campus.
CC.	1	2	3	4	Experiencing isolation and loneliness on campus.
DD.	1	2	3	4	Receiving scholarships to help pay tuition.
EE.	1	2	3	4	Receiving a work-study or any other job on campus.
FF.	1	2	3	4	Availability of courses to help me become more proficient in English.
GG.	1	2	3	4	Availability of Hispanic faculty to serve as academic advisors and role models.
HH.	1	2	3	4	A lack of knowledge regarding campus policies, rules, procedures.
II.	1	2	3	4	Campus culture is an obstacle in my academic achievement.

Note: If there are any additional barriers you have experienced in pursuing your degree, please describe them here.

PART FOUR: COMMENT SECTION. Please answer the following two questions revealing your true feelings as to what your institution is or is not doing for you.

1. In what ways has you campus actually provided you with the support you need to pursue your degree? (be as specific as possible, i.e., financial aid, campus counseling/tutoring, understanding faculty, social organizations, admission procedures, etc.

2. In what ways should your institution provide you with the additional support you need to complete your degree? (Try to be as specific as possible.)

Please indicate below if you would be interested in being interviewed for thirty minutes on your campus by this researcher to further discuss how universities can respond to Hispanic student needs.

_____ YES, please contact me

_____ NO, pleas do not contact me

If yes, please complete the following: (PLEASE PRINT)

Name _____

Address _____

Phone: Work # _____
(area code)
Home # _____
(area code)

Thank you for all your help!

Please return your survey to LYNN (VAN HOOF) WERNER, Doctoral Candidate, Loyola University Chicago, IN THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED, or use your own envelope, to the following address:

c/o Dr. C. Werner
Accounting Dept. LT 417E
820 N. Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60611

Check here if you would like a copy of the results of this survey. ( ) Be sure to include your name and address.

REMINDER: Please return Questionnaire by June 23, 1993

APPENDIX E.

LETTERS OF SUPPORT FROM HISPANIC WOMEN'S PROJECT AND ASSOCIATE DIRECTOR OF ADMISSIONS, DEPAUL UNIVERSITY

DEPAUL
UNIVERSITY

Office of Admissions
2323 North Seminary Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60614-3298
312/362-6710

April 19, 1993

Dear Student,

Lynn Werner, is a doctoral candidate at Loyola University and is interested in using our DePaul University undergraduate Hispanic students for her research to complete requirements for her Ph. D. in higher education.

I have seen her research proposal and have talked with her about this project. The purpose of this research is to investigate whether a relationship exists between your cultural orientation (background heritage) and your perceptions of University activities that may help or hinder your progress toward getting a degree.

I am satisfied that this is a good research project and encourage you to fill out the questionnaire for the benefit of all Latino students in higher education at DePaul. Lynn assures me that she will project your anonymity and confidentiality.

Sincerely,

William Smyser
Associate Director of Admissions

DEPAUL
UNIVERSITY

Office of Admissions
2323 North Seminary Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60614-3298
312/362-6710

April 19, 1993

Dear Student,

Lynn Werner, is a doctoral candidate at Loyola University and is interested in using our DePaul University undergraduate Hispanic students for her research to complete requirements for her Ph.D. in higher education.

I have seen her research proposal and have talked with her about this project. The purpose of this research is to investigate whether a relationship exists between your cultural orientation (background heritage) and your perceptions of University activities that may help or hinder your progress towards getting a degree.

I am satisfied that this is a good research project and encourage you to fill out the questionnaire for the benefit of all Latino students in higher education at DePaul. Lynn assures me that she will project your anonymity and confidentiality.

Sincerely,

Rebecca Alvin Paredes
Director, Hispanic Women's Project

APPENDIX F.

LETTER OF SUPPORT FROM OFFICE OF THE DEAN OF MULTICULTURAL AFFAIRS, LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

LOYOLA
UNIVERSITY
CHICAGO

Office of the Dean
Multicultural Affairs

6525 North Sheridan Road
Chicago Illinois 60626
Telephone: (312)508-3334
Fax: (312)508-3895

April 23, 1993

Estimado estudiante,

One of Loyola's doctoral students, Ms. Lynn Werner is conducting research to assist us in better understanding and meeting the needs of our Hispanic students at Loyola. The population of Hispanic students at many colleges and universities is increasing. Ms. Werner's research will help students not only at Loyola, but also in other universities. She has agreed to share the results of her study with us. Participation on your part is entirely voluntary. However, the more responses she is able to get from you, the better the quality of her research.

Therefore, I encourage you to participate in this study because ultimately I think it can benefit many students. Please keep in mind that individual responses will be kept confidential, there would be no way for us to trace who responded to the study unless you sign your name.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Angeles L. Eames
Dean

APPENDIX G.

LETTER OF SUPPORT FROM ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF ADMISSION, SAINT XAVIER UNIVERSITY

SAINT·XAVIER·UNIVERSITY

Planning and Institutional Research

April 27, 1993

Dear Student:

Saint Xavier University has agreed to participate in a cooperative research study with Loyola and DePaul Universities which addresses biculturism and student perceptions of barriers to their success in higher education.

We feel this research will be valuable in assisting us to understand the cultural values of our students and will help us to better serve the diverse Saint Xavier student population.

Would you please help us by taking a few minutes to complete this questionnaire and return it in the enclosed envelope?

Thank you for your time. Your participation in this research will help us to make this project a success.

Cordially,

Rebecca Guerra
Assistant Director of Admission

RG:pb

3700 West 103rd Street • Chicago, Illinois 60655
(312) 298-3305 • FAX (312) 779-9061

APPENDIX H.

CONSENT FORM

LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

Consent Form

Project Title: **An investigation of Hispanic student perceptions of barriers to success in higher education.**

I, _____, state that I am 18 years of age or older and that I wish to participate in a program of research being conducted by Lynn Van Hoof-Werner.

The purpose of this research is to investigate whether a relationship exists in higher education between my cultural background and my perceptions of university activities that may hinder or help my progress toward getting a degree. Some of the variables this researcher will be looking at are age differences, gender, ethnicity, part-time versus full-time enrollment, and generational status.

I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in thins research project, and understand this information is strictly confidential. I realize no risk is involved and that I may withdraw at any time without prejudice.

PLEASE RETURN WITH YOUR SURVEY IN THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED.

_____ _____

Signature of Volunteer Data

APPENDIX I.

FOLLOW-UP LETTERS

May 12, 1993

Last week a questionnaire seeking your perceptions of university activities that may help or hinder your progress toward getting a degree was mailed to you. Your name was drawn from a random sample of Latino Students enrolled at Loyola, DePaul and Saint Xavier Universities.

If you have already completed and returned it to me please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please do so as soon as possible. **It is extremely important your questionnaire be included in this study** if the results are to accurately represent the perceptions of all Latino students.

If you by chance did not receive the questionnaire, or misplaced it, please call me NOW (Home: 312-528-8750) or (Work: 312-337-5131), and I will send another one. **YOUR DEADLINE FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRE HAS BEEN EXTENDED TO MAY 20TH.**

Sincerely,

Lynn Werner
Doctoral Candidate
Loyola University Chicago

First Follow-up Postcard

June 10, 1993

Dear Student,

A few weeks ago I sent you a survey regarding Latino Students from Loyola, DePaul and Saint Xavier Universities. My research focused on the successful completion of an undergraduate degree for Hispanic students and helping identify stumbling blocks that may interfere with your degree completion. As of today I have not received your completed questionnaire.

The reason I have undertaken this research is to help you identify road blocks that you have experienced and to work on eliminating as many as possible so you may realize your goal of getting a college degree.

It is very important that you participate in this research for the benefit of all Latino students. You were chosen for this study through a computerized random sample of all identified Hispanic students at your institution.

In the event that your questionnaire has been misplaced, a replacement is enclosed. Remember, we need Hispanic role models to open the pathway for others to follow.

Cordially,

Lynn Van Hoof-Werner
Doctoral Candidate
Loyola University

P.S. I would appreciate a return on this as soon as possible in order to do the analysis on my research this summer. **MAIL NO LATER THAN JUNE 21ST TO BE CONSIDERED PART OF THIS STUDY.**

Encl.

Second Follow-up Letter (included also was a replacement copy of the questionnaire)

APPENDIX J.

SURVEY INSTRUMENT FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS

HISPANIC STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF BARRIERS TO SUCCESS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

PART ONE: Please answer the following.

1. Age: 18 - 24 243 68.2% or 25 and over 109 31.8%
2. Gender: 104 69.7% Male 239 69.7% Female
3. Place of Birth: _____
   city state country
4. Father's Place of Birth: _____
   city state country
5. Mother's Place of Birth: _____
   city state country
6. Are you part-time enrolled 96 28.7% or are you full time enrolled 239 71.3%? (Check one)
7. Are you . . .
   a. 81 23.9% Immigrant - born outside of the U.S. and moved to the U.S.
   b. 18 5.3% Citizen - born in the U.S. yet lived extended period(s) of time on the island of Puerto Rico.
   c. 177 52.2% 1st generation - you were first to be born in U.S.
   d. 49 14.5% 2nd generation - your parents were born in U.S.
   e. 14 4.1% 3rd generation - your grandparents were born in U.S.
8. Do you consider yourself:
   a. 0 0.0% African American
   b. 12 3.5% Central American
   c. 9 2.6% Cuban/Cuban American
   d. 210 61.6% Mexican/Mexican American/Chicano
   e. 44 12.9% Puerto Rican
   f. 35 10.3% South American
   g. 31 9.1% Other(s) _____ (specify)
9. Identify culture(s) within your local neighborhood or community: (check all that apply)
   a. 117 35.1% African American
   b. 50 15.0% Central American
   c. 27 8.1% Cuban/Cuban American
   d. 224 67.3% Mexican/Mexican American
   e. 98 29.4% Puerto Rican Island/Mainland
   f. 42 12.7% South American
   g. 185 55.7% Other(s) _____ (specify)
10. What do you prefer to be called? (circle only one)
    a. Chicano(a) 2 0.6% b. Hispanic 206 60.9% c. Latino(a) 61 18.0% d. Other 69 20.4% (specify)
11. a. How many brothers do you have? range 0 to 7, mean=1.617
    b. How many sisters? range 0 to 8, mean 1.588
12. a. How many brothers now live at home? range 0 to 4, mean 0.808
    b. How many sisters? range 0 to 5, mean 0.660

13. What is your marital status? (check one):
    a. 277 80.8% never married c. 49 14.3% married e. 1 0.3% widowed
    b. 14 4.1% divorced d. 2 0.6% separated
14. If you are (were) married, what is (was) the ethnic background of your spouse? (check one):
    a. 46 51.1% Hispanic c. 23 25.6% Anglo/White e. 1 1.1% Native American
    b. 2 2.2% Asian American d. 1 1.1% African American f. 17 18.9% Other: _____ (specify)
15. What language(s) does your father speak at home? _____
16. What language(s) does your mother speak at home? _____
17. What language(s) do you speak? _____
18. Which languages are you most comfortable with? 132 67.5% English 34 9.9% Spanish 77 22.5% Both
19. If married, what is the language spoken in your home? _____
20. If you have children, what languages are spoken in your home? _____
21. How well do you speak Spanish (check one):
    a. 166 48.7% very fluently
    b. 115 33.7% somewhat fluently
    c. 41 12.0% can speak only basic words and phrases
    d. 14 4.1% can understand it but can't speak it
    e. 5 1.5% no knowledge of Spanish
22. How many years have you lived in the United States? range 4 to 47 years, mean 21.291 In what areas:
    a. 24 7.4% Rural b. 223 68.4% Urban c. 79 24.2% Suburban
23. Do you have relatives/friends who live in another country? (check one):
    a. 306 90.0% Yes b. 34 10.0% No
24. What is the highest level of education achieved by each of your parents/guardians? (check one in each column):

	Father/Guardian	Mother/Guardian
a. Elementary school	a. 126 37.8%	a. 110 32.4%
b. Some high school	b. 46 13.8%	b. 55 16.2%
c. High school graduate	c. 63 18.9%	c. 81 23.8%
d. Some college	d. 57 17.1%	d. 50 14.7%
e. College graduate	e. 23 6.9%	e. 30 8.8%
f. Advanced degree (Master, Ph.D.)	f. 18 5.4%	f. 14 4.1%

NOTE: ANSWER EITHER 25 OR 26 - NOT BOTH.

25. If you maintain your own home, what is your family income level? (check one)

Below - $10,000	a. 17 15.3%	$31,000 - $40,000	d. 9 8.1%
$10,000 - $20,000	b. 18 16.2%	$41,000 - $55,000	e. 23 20.7%
$21,000 - $30,000	c. 27 24.3%	Above - $56,000	f. 17 15.3%

26. If you live with a parent or guardian, what is the household income level? (check one)

Below - $10,000	a. 10 4.4%	$41,000 - $55,000	e. 36 15.9%
$10,000 - $20,000	b. 38 16.7%	Above - $56,000	f. 38 16.7%
$21,000 - $30,000	c. 44 19.4%	Don't Know	g. 24 10.6%
$31,000 - $40,000	d. 37 16.3%		

PART TWO: Please answer the following relating to your cultural experiences on campus and home.

Check the one response that is most appropriate for you.

27. The ethnic composition of the neighborhood I now live in:

a.	18	5.3%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	67	19.8%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	96	28.4%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	147	43.5%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	5	1.5%	Mostly Asian American
f.	5	1.5%	Mostly African American

28. At present, the majority of my closest friends are:

a.	23	6.8%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	108	32.0%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	110	32.5%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	93	27.5%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	4	1.2%	Mostly Asian American
f.	0	0.0%	Mostly African American

29. In high school, my close friends were:

a.	51	15.1%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	112	33.1%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	78	23.1%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	87	25.7%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	6	1.8%	Mostly Asian American
f.	4	1.2%	Mostly African American

30. The people with whom I have established close and meaningful relationships have been:

a.	39	11.5%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	101	29.7%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	107	31.5%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	88	25.9%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	5	1.5%	Mostly Asian American
f.	0	0.0%	Mostly African American

31. When I am with my friends, I usually attend social gatherings where the people are:

a.	13	3.8%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	83	24.5%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	140	41.3%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	98	28.9%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	4	1.2%	Mostly Asian American
f.	1	0.3%	Mostly African American

32. I enjoy going to gatherings at which the people are:

a.	11	3.3%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	59	17.5%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	220	65.3%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	45	13.4%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	1	0.3%	Mostly Asian American
f.	1	0.3%	Mostly African American

33. The people who have most influenced me in my education have been:

a.	27	8.0%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	96	28.5%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	103	30.6%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	107	31.8%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	2	0.6%	Mostly Asian American
f.	2	0.6%	Mostly African American

34. When I study with others, I usually study with:

a.	13	4.0%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	64	20.5%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	147	45.0%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	97	29.7%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	3	0.9%	Mostly Asian American
f.	0	0.0%	Mostly African American

35. In the job(s) I have had, my close friends have been:

a.	14	4.1%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	54	15.8%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	166	48.7%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	99	29.0%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	0	0.0%	Mostly Asian American
f.	8	2.3%	Mostly African American

36. When I am involved in group discussions where I am expected to participate, I prefer a group made up of:

a.	8	2.4%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	37	11.0%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	255	76.1%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	34	10.1%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	1	0.3%	Mostly Asian American
f.	0	0.0%	Mostly African American

37. The teachers and counselors with whom I have had the closest relationships have been:

a.	6	1.8%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	30	8.9%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	106	31.5%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	189	56.3	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	0	0.0%	Mostly Asian American
f.	5	1.5%	Mostly African American

38. When I discuss personal problems or issues, (other than with my family), I discuss them with:

a.	26	7.7%	All Hispanic (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Latin American)
b.	97	28.7%	Mostly Hispanic
c.	130	38.5%	Hispanic, Anglo, African American, about equal
d.	81	24.0%	Mostly Anglo, All Anglo
e.	2	0.6%	Mostly Asian American
f.	2	0.6%	Mostly African American

39. When I write personal material (letters, cards, etc.), I write in:

a.	9	2.6%	Spanish
b.	5	1.5%	Mostly Spanish
c.	77	22.4%	Spanish and English, about equal
d.	252	73.5%	Mostly or All English

40. I attend social gatherings that are predominantly **ANGLO** in nature:

a.	52 15.2%	Extensively	c.	135 39.5%	Occasionally
b.	99 28.9%	Frequently	d.	56 16.3%	Seldom/Never

41. I attend social gatherings that are predominantly **HISPANIC** in nature:

a.	43 12.6%	Extensively	c.	133 38.9%	Occasionally
b.	112 32.7%	Frequently	d.	54 15.8%	Seldom/Never

42. I visit the homes of anglos who are not relatives:

a.	67 19.8%	Extensively	c.	104 30.7%	Occasionally
b.	61 18.0%	Frequently	d.	107 31.6%	Seldom/Never

43. I invite Anglos who are not relatives to my home:

a.	61 17.9%	Extensively	c.	128 37.6%	Occasionally
b.	62 18.2%	Frequently	d.	89 26.2%	Seldom/Never

44. I visit the home of Hispanics who are not relatives:

a.	58 17.1	Extensively	c.	146 42.9%	Occasionally
b.	82 24.1	Frequently	d.	54 15.9%	Seldom/Never

45. I invite Hispanics who are not relatives to my home:

a.	47 13.7%	Extensively	c.	136 39.8%	Occasionally
b.	93 27.2%	Frequently	d.	66 19.3%	Seldom/Never

46. I visit relatives and/or close friends in Mexico/Puerto Rico or other Latin American countries:

a.	8 2.3%	Very often (several times a year)
b.	15 4.4%	Often (two/three times a year)
c.	98 28.7	Occasionally (once a year)
d.	220 64.5%	Seldom (once in three years), or Never

47. Relatives and/or close friends from Mexico/Puerto Rico or other countries of Latin America visit me:

a.	6 1.8%	Very often (several times a year)
b.	27 7.8%	Often (two/three times a year)
c.	86 25.2%	Occasionally (once a year)
d.	222 65.1%	Seldom (once in three years), or Never

PART THREE: There are several reasons why students may not complete a program of study or might withdraw altogether from college. The following are some examples of obstacles that could possibly deter you from completing a bachelor's degree. From the list below, identify the degree to which these obstacles either have been or are now a major concern for you.

Please respond by circling a number using the following scale: 1 = Always a major concern for me
2 = Often a major concern for me
3 = Seldom a major concern for me
4 = Never a major concern for me

		1	2	3	4	
A.	(N)	116	113	65	45	Having enough quality study time at home to complete my weekly assignments.
	(%)	34.2%	33.3%	19.2%	13.3%	
B.	(N)	78	99	84	79	Feeling sufficiently prepared academically for college level work.
	(%)	22.9%	29.1%	24.7%	23.2%	
C.	(N)	73	89	93	86	Having enough writing skills to complete college level work.
	(%)	21.4%	26.1%	27.3%	25.2%	
D.	(N)	120	92	60	69	Finishing my academic degree in a reasonable time frame because of job and home duties.
	(%)	35.2%	27.0%	17.6%	9.7%	
E.	(N)	185	79	43	33	Having enough money to pay tuition, books and fees.
	(%)	54.4%	23.2%	12.6%	9.7%	
F.	(N)	53	47	79	159	Family understanding my need for a social life on campus.
	(%)	15.7%	13.9%	23.4%	47.9%	
G.	(N)	28	34	27	247	Demands put upon me because of child care responsibilities.
	(%)	8.3%	10.1%	8.0%	73.5%	
H.	(N)	38	57	66	169	Family approval of academic time demands getting a degree requires.
	(%)	11.5%	17.3%	20.0%	51.2%	
I.	(N)	141	80	37	81	Being able to afford full-time student status so I can get my degree in 4 years.
	(%)	41.6%	23.6%	10.9%	23.9%	
J.	(N)	23	20	19	272	Having enough money for good as well as convenient child care so I can attend college.
	(%)	6.9%	6.0%	5.7%	81.4%	
K.	(N)	22	23	42	254	Convincing my family that higher education is important and needed.
	(%)	6.5%	6.7%	12.3%	74.5%	
L.	(N)	57	74	103	107	Feeling discouraged due to length of time it takes to get a degree.
	(%)	16.7%	21.7%	30.2%	31.4%	
M.	(N)	11	18	68	244	Faculty and other university personnel make me feel that being in college is not where I belong.
	(%)	3.2%	5.3%	19.9%	71.6%	
N.	(N)	44	70	100	127	Feeling unsure of my academic goals.
	(%)	12.9%	20.5%	29.3%	37.2%	
O.	(N)	50	85	113	92	At times, feeling that I cannot compete academically with other students.
	(%)	14.7%	25.0%	33.2%	27.1%	
P.	(N)	49	75	127	88	Having a lack of confidence in my abilities while I'm taking a test.
	(%)	14.5%	22.1%	37.5%	26.0%	
Q.	(N)	53	56	134	97	Being uncomfortable when called upon to respond in class.
	(%)	15.6%	16.5%	39.4%	28.5%	
R.	(N)	56	72	98	114	Staying motivated to get a degree because I feel I have to work twice as hard as anybody else.
	(%)	16.5%	21.2%	28.8%	33.5%	
S.	(N)	48	57	83	151	Family creating tension and stress for me affects my campus life.
	(%)	14.2%	16.8%	24.5%	44.5%	
T.	(N)	11	10	36	277	Getting my parents to accept my going to college when my other siblings are treated much differently.
	(%)	3.3%	3.0%	10.8%	82.9%	

PART THREE CONTINUED:

		1	2	3	4	
U.	(N)	18	18	39	265	Feeling I'm too old to learn and can't grasp information as quickly.
	(%)	5.3%	5.3%	11.5%	77.9%	
V.	(N)	23	37	94	185	Feeling that my campus is a welcoming place.
	(%)	6.8%	10.9%	27.7%	54.6%	
W.	(N)	23	48	115	153	Having faculty listen when I ask questions or express concerns in class.
	(%)	6.8%	14.2%	33.9%	45.1%	
X.	(N)	38	51	85	165	Having Hispanic student advisor or counselor available on campus.
	(%)	11.2%	15.0%	25.1%	48.7%	
Y.	(N)	28	43	96	172	Feeling uncomfortable with hostilities toward Latinos in the academic environment.
	(%)	8.3%	12.7%	28.3%	50.7%	
Z.	(N)	4	20	59	257	Having personal conflicts with peers on campus.
	(%)	1.2%	5.9%	17.4%	75.6%	
AA.	(N)	30	58	95	157	Having other Hispanic students around on campus with whom to interact and receive support.
	(%)	8.8%	17.1%	27.9%	46.2%	
BB.	(N)	23	36	100	180	Experiencing an unequal quality of teaching on campus.
	(%)	6.8%	10.6%	29.5%	53.1%	
CC.	(N)	25	53	80	181	Experiencing isolation and loneliness on campus.
	(%)	7.4%	15.6%	23.6%	53.4%	
DD.	(N)	156	64	50	69	Receiving scholarships to help pay tuition.
	(%)	46.0%	18.9%	14.7%	20.4%	
EE.	(N)	64	62	59	155	Receiving a work-study or any other job on campus.
	(%)	18.8%	18.2%	17.4%	45.6%	
FF.	(N)	26	22	48	244	Availability of courses to help me become more proficient in English.
	(%)	7.6%	6.5%	14.1%	71.8%	
GG.	(N)	61	60	74	145	Availability of Hispanic faculty to serve as academic advisors and role models.
	(%)	17.9%	17.6%	21.8%	42.6%	
HH.	(N)	17	31	95	197	A lack of knowledge regarding campus policies, rules, procedures.
	(%)	5.0%	9.1%	27.9%	57.9%	
II.	(N)	7	24	80	228	Campus culture is an obstacle in my academic achievement.
	(%)	2.1%	7.1%	23.6%	67.3%	

APPENDIX K.

CAMPUS INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE

Campus Interview Questionnaire Guide

1. What are the top two or three barriers that are hindering your degree completion on your campus? Please take a few minutes to put them in rank order.

2. Have you experienced any hostilities or discrimination (either racial or gender bias) toward Latinos on your campus by fellow students or professors? Any favoritism toward male or female students in class or in grading.

3. Are there any role models on your campus with whom you feel comfortable communicating? Has isolation among your peers been a problem for you?

4. Does your institution have special programs that are helpful and supportive of your needs (PLUS, DALI, LEAP, LAOS)?

5. Is your family supportive of your educational endeavors?

REFERENCES

Allen, Bem, P., & Niss, James, F. (1990, April). A Chill in the College Classroom. Macomb, Illinois: Phi Delta Kappan-Western Illinois University.

American Council on Education. (1990). Minority Participation in Higher Education. Washington DC: American Council on Education.

American Council on Education. (1991). Minority Participation in Higher Education. Washington DC: American Council on Education.

American Council on Education. (1993). Minority Participation in Higher Education. Washington DC: American Council on Education.

American Council on Education, Commission of the States. (1988). One-third of a Nation: A Report of the Commission on Minority Participation in Education and American Life. Washington, DC: American Council on Education, and Commission of the States.

Aslanian, C.B., & Pollack, R.W. (1983). Improving Financial Aid Services for Adults: A Program Guide. New York: College Entrance Examination Board.

Aspira. (1983). Gangs and Violence. In C. Kyle & E. Kantowics (Ed.), Kids First--Primero Los Ninos: Chicago School Reform in the 1980's (pp. 81-87). Springfield: Sangamon Press.

Astin, A. (1982). Minorities in Higher Education. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Astin, H. (1975). Preventing Students from Dropping Out. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Astin, H. (1992, April). Reclaiming the Public Trust: A Research Agenda to Explore the Validity of the Criticisms. Paper presented at the AAHE 1992 National Conference, Chicago, IL.

Aguirre, A., Jr., & Ruben O, Martinez (1993). Chicanos in Higher Education: Issues and Dilemmas for the 21st Centuries. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report #3. Washington, DC: The George Washington University, School of Education and Human Development.

Baca Zinn, M. (1980). Employment and education of Mexican American Women: The Interplay of Modernity and Ethnicity in Eight Families. Harvard Educational Review, 50 (1), 47-62.

Ballesteros, E. (1986). Do Hispanics Receive an Equal Educational Opportunity? The Relationship of School Outcomes, Family Background, and High School Curriculum. In M.A. Olivas (Ed.), Latino College Students (pp. 47-70). New York: Teachers College Press.

Boyer, E. (1993, January). Catholic Higher Education: An American Profile. Association of Catholic Colleges and Universities.

Buriel R., Saenz E. (1980). Psychocultural Characteristics of College-Bound Chicanas. Journal of Social Psychology, (101), pp. 245-251.

Buriel, R. (1984). Integration with Traditional Mexican-American Culture and Sociocultural Adjustment. In J. R. Martinez & R. Mendoza, Chicano Psychology (pp. 95-130). New York: Academic.

Cabrera, A. F., Nora, A., Castaneda, M. & Hengstler, D. S. (1992). The Convergence Between Two Theoris of College Persistence. Journal of Higher Education, 64 (2), pp. 143-164.

Cardoza, D. (1991, October). Advancing Urban Higher Education. Paper presented at the meeting of the National Conference on Urban Higher Education, Cleveland State University, Clevelant, OH.

Carter, D. J. (1990). Racial and Ethnic Trends in College Participation and Enrollment. Washington DC: American Council on Education Research Briefs, Vol. 1 (2), p. 2.

Carter, D. J., & Wilson, R. (1988). Seventh Annual Status Report: Minorities in Higher Education. Washington, DC: American Council on Education, Office of Minority Concerns.

Carter, D. J., & Wilson, R. (1989). Eighth Annual Status Report: Minorities in Higher Education. Washington, DC: American Council on Education, Office of Minority Concerns.

Carter, D. J., & Wilson, R. (1991). Ninth Annual Status Report: Minorities in Higher Education. Washington, DC: American Council on Education, Office of Minorities in Higher Education.

Carter, D.J., & Wilson, R. (1992). Tenth Annual Status Report: Minorities in Higher Education. Washington, DC: American Council on Education, Office of Minorities in Higher Education.

Carter, D. J., & Wilson, R. (1993). Eleventh annual status report: Minorities in Higher Education. Washington, DC: American Council on Education, Office of Minorities in Higher Education.

Carter, D.J., & Wilson, R. (1994). Twelfth annual status report: Minorities in Higher Education. Washington, DC: American Council on Education, Office of Minorities in Higher Education.

Cavazos, L. (1985, April). For Whom the School Bell Tolls. Paper presented at the Texas Symposium on Hispanic Educational Issues, Texas Tech State University, Lubbock, TX.

Chacon, M. A., Cohen, E. G. & Strover, S. (1986). Chicanas and Chicanos: Barriers to progress in higher education. In M.A. Olivas (Ed.), Latino College Students (pp. 296-324). New York: Teachers College Press.

Chapa, J., Valencia, R. R. (1993, May). Latino Population Growth, Demographic Characteristics, and Educational Stagnation: An Examination of Recent Trends. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 15 (2) 165-187.

Cheatham, H. E. (1991). Cultural Pluralism on Campus. Virginia: American Association for Counseling and Development.

Chickering, A. W. (1969). Education and Identity. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Childs, I. (1943). Italian or American? New Haven: Yale University Press.

Clewell, B., & Ficklen, M. (1987). Effective Institutional Practices for Improving Minority Retention in Higher Education. The Journal of College Admissions, 48 (4) pp. 7-13.

Coleman, J. (1973). Power and the Structure of Society. New York: Norton.

Collison, M. (1994, February 2). Spanish for Native Speakers: As Hispanic Enrollment Grows, Colleges in Many Regions Offer Special Courses. Chronicle of Higher Education, pp. A15-A16.

Cooney, R., Rogler, L., & Ortiz, V. (1980). Intergenerational Change in Educational Attainment Among Puerto Ricans: A closer Look at the Migration Experience. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Population Association of America, Denver, CO.

Cortera, M. P. (1976). Chicana Feminist. Austin, Texas: Information Systems Development, Statehouse Printing.

Cortese, A. J., Duncan, M. I. (1982). The Denial of Access: Chicanos in Higher Education. (Report No. MF01/PC02). San Francisco, CA: American Sociological Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 224 625)

Cortese, A. J. (1992). Family, Culture, and Society: Educational Policy Implications for Mexican Americans. Phylon, 49 (1-2), 71-83.

Crocker, E. V. (1982, December). The Report Card on Educating Hispanic Women. (Report No. UD024 535). Washington, DC: Women's Educational Equity Act Program. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED263 263)

Cross, K. P. (1981). Adults as Learners: Increasing Participation and Facilitating Learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cross, K. P. (1987, April). Teaching for Learning. American Association for Higher Education. AAHE Bulletin, 39 (8), 1-6.

Cross, K.P. (1992, April). Reclaiming the Public Trust: A Research Agenda to Explore the Validity of the Criticism. Paper presented at the 1992 AAHE National Conference, Chicago, IL.

Darder A. (1991). Culture and Power in the Classroom: A Critical Foundation for Bicultural Education. New York: Bergin & Garvey.

Darkenwald, G. G., & Merriam, S. B. (1982). Adult Education: Foundations of Practice. New York: Harper & Row.

Delgado-Gaitin, C. (1992, Fall). School matters in the Mexican American Home: Socializing Children to Education. American Educational Research Journal, 29 (3), 495-513.

Del Castillo, A. R., & Mora, M. Eds. (1980). Mexican Women in the United States: Struggles Past and Present. Los Angeles: University of California, Chicano Studies Center Publications.

De Los Santos Jr., A. & Rigual, A. (1994). Progress of Hispanics in American Higher Education. In Justiz, Wilson, & Bjork (Eds.), Minorities in Higher Education (pp. 173-194). Phoenix, Arizona: Oryx.

Denham, Alice, Ed. (1985, April). The Quest for Excellence in the Education of Hispanics: Proceedings of the Texas Symposium on Hispanic Educational Issues. (Report No. MF01/PC04). Lubbock, Texas: Texas Tech University-College of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 281-945)

Diagle, S. L. (1979). Attrition and Retention in College. In M. Olivas (ed.), Latino College Students. New York: Teachers College Press.

Dillman, D. A. (1978). Mail and Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method. New York: John-Wiley & Sons.

Duncan, B., & Duncan, O. D. (1968). Minorities and the process of stratification. American Sociological Review, 33, 356-364.

Duran, R. P. (1983). Hispanics' Education and Background: Predictors of College Achievement. New York: College Entrance Examination Board.

Duran, R. P. (1986). Prediction of Hispanics' College Achievement. In M. A. Olivas (Ed.), Latino College Students (pp. 221-245). New York: Teachers College Press.

Edsall, T. B., & Edsall, M. D. (1991). Chain Reaction: The Impact of Race, Rights, and Taxes on American Politics. New York: W.W. Norton.

Elliott, P. G. (1994). The Urban Campus: Educating the New Majority for the New Century. Arizona: Oryx.

Evangelauf, J. (1991, September 18). Study predicts dramatic shifts in enrollments. Chronicle of Higher Education, p. A40.

Finkelstein, M. J. (1984). The Status of Academic Women: An Assessment of Five Competing Explanations. Review of Higher Education, 7 (3), 223-46.

Fitzgerald, T. K. (1972). Education and Identity: A Reconsideration of Some Models of Acculturation and Identity. New Zeeland Journal of Educational Studies, 7 (1), 45-58.

Fitzpatrick, J. P. (1976). The Puerto Rican Family. In R.W. Habenstein & C.H. Mindel (Eds.), Ethnic Families in America: Patterns and Variations (pp. 192-217). New York: Elsevier.

Flaherty, R. (1990, October). ASPIRA Aids Hispanics Who Aspire to College. The Chicago Sun-Times, sec. 2, p. 5.

Flores, J. L. (1989). Persistence and Non-Persistence of Hispanic-American Students at Two Comprehensive Universities (Doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1989). Dissertation Abstracts International, 51, 02A, p. 425.

Flores-Lew, C. (1993). Public Schools and the Education of Latino Students. In C. Flores-Lew (Ed.), Bicultural Studies in Education: The Struggle for Educational Justice (pp. 173-182). California: Institute for Education in Transformation.

Gandara, P. (1982). Passing Through the Eye of the Needle: High-Achieving Chicanas. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 4 (2), 167-179.

Gandara, P. (1986, November). Chicanos in Higher Education: The Politics of Self-Interest. American Journal of Education, 95 (1), 256-263.

Gappa, J. M. (1984). Part-Time Higher Education at Crossroads. Washington, DC: George Washington University.

Gappa, J. M. & Leslie, D. W. (1993). The Invisible Faculty: Improving the Status of Part-Timers in Higher Education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Garcia, J. (1984). The Logic and Limits of Mental Aptitude Testing. In J. Martinez (Ed.), Chicano Psychology (2nd edition) (pp. 41-57). New York: Academic Press.

Garcia, M. (1981). Desert Immigrants: The Mexicans of El Paso, 1890-1920. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Garza, R. T. & Lipton, J. P. (1982). Theoretical perspectives on Chicano Personality Development. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 4 (4), 407-432.

Garza, R. T. & Lipton, J. P. (1984). Foundations for a Chicano Social Psychology. In J. L. Martinez, Jr. (Ed.), Chicano Psychology (2nd edition) (pp. 335-356). New York: Academic Press.

Garza-Lubeck, M., Feyl-Chavkin, N. (1988, Summer). The role of parent Involvement in Recruiting and Retaining the Hispanic College Student. College and University, 63 (4), 310-32.

Garza, R. T., & Widlak, F. W. (1976). Antecedents of Chicano and Anglo student Perceptions of the University Environment. Journal of College Student Personnel, 17, 295-299.

Garza, M. (1994, October). Census Puts Latinos in a Bittersweet Light. Chicago Tribune, pp. A1, A8.

Geary, P. (1988, April). Defying the Odds? Academic Success Among At-Risk Minority Teenagers in an Urban High School. (Report Number MF-01; PC-01). Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. Ed 296 055.9).

Gerald, D. E., & Hussar, W. J. (1992, December). Projections of Education Statistics to 2003. National Center for Educational Statistics. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, p. 12.

Gonzalez. A. M. (1978). Psychological Characteristics Associated with Biculturalism Among Mexican American College Women. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas, 1978) Dissertation Abstracts International 49, 04B, p. 2007.

Green. M. F., (Ed.). (1989). Minorities on Campus: A Handbook for Enhancing Diversity. Washington, DC: American Council on Education (ACE).

Hall, E. R. (1986, June). Role Demands and College Experiences of Minority and White Men and Women. Paper presented and the annual forum of the Association for Institutional Research, Orlando, FL.

Haupt, A., & Kane, T. T. (1991). Population Handbook: The Population Reference Bureau's Third Edition. Washington, DC: Population Reference Bureau, Inc.

Haupt, A., (1991). The population Reference Bureau's Population Handbook. (Third Edition). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Hirschman, A. O. (1978). A Bias for Hope; Essays on Development and Latin America. New Haven, CT: Yale University.

Hispanic Almanac: Edition Two. (1990). Hispanic Policy Development Project. New York: Sowers Printing Co.

Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities (HACU). (1990, September). San Antonio, TX: Annual Report. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 330 374)

Hodgkinson, H. (1991). Beyond the schools: How Schools and Communities Must Collaborate to Solve the Problems Facing American Youth. Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.

Horwitz, R. (1983). Honor and the American Dream. New Jersey: Rutgers University Press.

Hostilities and Negative Attitudes Toward Hispanic Students. (1988, March 9). Chronicle of Higher Education, p. A8.

Howe, K. R. (1992, Fall). Liberal Democracy, Equal Education Opportunity, and the Challenge of Multiculturalism. American Education Research Journal, 29 (3), 455-470.

Hurtado, S. (1992). The Campus Racial Climate: Contexts of Conflict. Journal of Higher Education, 63 (5), 539-569.

Illinois Board of Higher Education. (1993, January). Report to the Governor and General Assembly on Under-Represented Groups in Public Institutions of Higher Education in Illinois. Springfield, IL: Board of Higher Education.

Jackson, G. (1990). Financial Aid College Entry and Affirmative Action. American Journal of Education, 98, 523-550.

Jaramillo, M. L. (1990). To Serve Hispanic American Female Students: Challenges and Responsibilities for Educational Institutions. (Report No. UD027/331). Claremont, California: The Tomas Rivera Center. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 317634).

Jones, D. J., & Watson, B. C. (1990). High-risk Students and Higher Education: Future Trends. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 3. Washington, DC: The George Washington University Press.

Justiz, M. J. (1994). Demographic Trends and the Challenge to American Higher Education. In M. J. Justiz, R. Wilson, & L. G. Bjork (Eds.), Minorities in Higher Education, (pp. 1-21). Phoenix, Arizona: Oryx.

Justiz, M. J., Wilson, R., & Bjork, L. G. (1994). Minorities In Higher Education. Phoenix, Arizona: Oryx.

Kallen, H. M. (1924, reprinted 1970). Culture and Democracy in the United States. New York: Arno.

Katsinas, S. G. (1989). Educational Arrears: Addressing the Under-Enrollment of Hispanics in Illinois Higher Education. The Urban Review, 21 (1), 35-49.

Kniep. (1992). From Image to Implementation. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (AERA), Chicago, Illinois.

Kosuth, T. F. (1990). Hispanic-American Participation in Postsecondary Education: A multiple Case Study (Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas, 1990). Dissertation Abstracts International, 51, 06A, p. 1883.

Kyle, C. L. (1984). The Los Preiosos: The Magnitude of and Reasons for the Hispanic Dropout Problem in Chicago. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

Kyle, C. L. (1986). We Have A Choice: Students at Risk Leaving Chicago Public Schools. (Report No.UDO25079). Chicago, Illinois: Chicago Area Studies Center. (ERIC: Document Reproduction Service No. ED ED273710).

Kyle, C. L., & Kantowicz, E. R. (1992). Kids First-Primero Los Ninos, Chicago School Reform in the 1980's. Illinois Issues, Springfield: Sangamon State University.

Kyle, C. L., & Kantowicz, E. R. (1994, July). Kids First-Primero Los Ninos: Chicago School Reform. The Chicago Tribune, Tempo Section (5), p. 2.

Lambert, W. E. (1977). The Effects of Bilingualism on the Individual: Cognitive and Sociocultural Consequences. In P. A. Hornby (Ed.), Bilingualism: Psychological, Social, and Educational Implications, (pp. 15-28). New York: Academic.

Latino Institute of Chicago, (October, 1994). Latinos Face to Face. Chicago, Illinois: Latino Institute Research Division (Sylvia Puente-Research Director).

Lee, B. S., et al. (1990, June). MESA/MEP at American River College: Year One Evaluation Report. (Report No. MF01/PC02). Los Rios Community College District, Sacramento. Office of the Chancellor. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 319 472).

Loeb, C. (1980, Summer). La Chicana: A Bibliographic Survey. Frontiers: A Journal of Women Studies, 5 (2), 59-74.

Lucas, I. (1971). Puerto Rican Drop-outs in Chicago: Numbers, Motivations. (Final Report Project No. 0-E-108) Chicago: IL Council on Urban Education.

Macias, R. F. (1993, May). Language and Ethnic Classification of Language Minorities: Chicano and Latino Students in the 1990's. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 15 (2), 230-257.

Madsen, W. (1964). The Mexican-American of South Texas. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Maestas, J. (1981). Analysis of Hispanic-Related Grants. Washington DC: George Washington University.

Marcus, L. R. (1994, Spring). Diversity and Its Discontents. The Review of Higher Education, 17 (3), 225-240.

Martinez, J. & Mendoza. (1984). Chicano Psychology. New York: Academic Press.

Marzano, R. J. (1992). A Different Kind of Classroom: Teaching with Dimensions of Learning. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

McJamerson, E. M. (1990). Undergraduate Academic Major and Minority Student Persistence: The National Need for Institutional Research. Baton Rouge, LA: Louisiana State University Press.

Mingle, J. (1987, July). Focus on Minorities: Trends in Higher Education Participation and Success. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States and the State Higher Education Executive Officers.

Mirande, A., & Enriquez, E. (1979). La Chicana: The Mexican-American Woman. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Munoz, C. (1971). Toward a Chicano Perspective of Political Analysis. AZTLAN-Chicago Journal of Social Sciences, 1 (2), 15-26.

Munoz, D. (1986). Identifying Areas of Stress for Chicano Undergraduates. In M. Olivas (Ed.), Latino College Students, (pp. 131-156). New York: Teachers College Press.

National Council of La Raza. (1986). The Education of Hispanics: Status and Implications. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

National Education Association. (1987, June). Hispanic Concerns: Report of the Study Committee. Washington DC: National Education Association, Human and Civil Rights. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 310 188)

Nora, A. (1987). Determinants of Retention Among Chicano College Students: A Structural Model. Research in Higher Education, 26 (1), 31-59.

Nunez-Wormack, E. (1989, January). The National Agenda for Higher Education into the Twenty-First Century. (Report No. MF-01; PC-01). Keynote address at the State wide conference on the Retention of Minority Students, Columbus, Ohio. (ED 306 332.23)

O'Donnell, J. A. (1987, Summer). Enhancing Educational Opportunities for Hispanic Women. Journal of College Admissions, 116, 20-25.

Ogbu, John U. (1977). Minority Education and Caste: The American System in Cross-Cultural Perspective. New York: Academic Press.

O'Hare, W. P. (1992, December). America's Minorities--The Demographics of Diversity. Population Bulletin, 47 (4).

Olivas, M. A. (Ed.). (1986). Latino College Students. New York: Teachers College Press.

Olivas, M. (1990, May). Policy Research, Number Crunching, and the Powers of Observation. Paper presented at a Retention Conference, University of Illinois, Chicago, IL.

Orfield, G. (1984). Hispanic Education: Challenges, Research, and Policies. American Journal of Education, 1-25.

Orfield, G. (1988, July). The Growth and Concentration of Hispanic Enrollment and the Future of American Education. (Report No. MF01/PC02). Albuquerque, NM: National Council of La Raza Conference. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 319 819)

Orfield, G. (1992, Fall). Money, Equity, and College Access. Harvard Educational Review, 62 (3), 337-372.

Orfield, G., & Paul, F. (1987, Fall/Winter). Declines in Minority Access: A Tale of Five Cities. Educational Record, 57-62.

Ortiz, V. (1986, March). Gender Differences: Special Issues Affecting Education and Labor Market Success. Paper presented at the Planning Seminar on Education and the Economy, Tomas Rivera Center, Claremont, California.

Ortiz, F. I., (1988). The Educational Experience of Hispanic American Woman. Encino, CA: Thoma' Rivera Center Floricanto Press.

Orum, Lori S. (1986). The education of Hispanics: Status and Implications. Washington D.C: National Council of La Raza. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 274 753)

Padilla, A. M. (1980). The Role of Cultural Awareness and Ethnic Loyalty in Acculturation. In A. M. Padilla (Ed), Acculturation Theory, Models and Some New Findings (pp. 48-84). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Padilla, A. & Levine, E. (1980). Crossing Cultrues in Therapy: Pluralistic Counseling for the Hispanic. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing.

Padilla, F. M. (1987). Puerto Rican Chicago. Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.

Padilla, F. M. (1985). Latino Ethnic Consciousness: The case of Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans in Chicago. Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.

Padilla, R. V., (1991, April). Using Dialogical Research Methods with Chicano College Students. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Il. Copyright (c) 1990 R.V. Padilla. Hispanic Research Center, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ.

Padilla, R. V., Pavel, D. M. & Murguia, E. (1991). Ethnicity and the Concept of Social Integration in Tinto's Model of Institutional Departure. Journal of College Student Development, (32), 433-439.

Parish, K. E. A. (1993). Racism: Restructuring the Process Understanding Privilege. In A. Darder (Ed.), Bicultural Studies in Education: The Struggle for Education Justice (pp. 164-171). CA: The Institute for Education in Transformation, The Claremont Graduate School.

Pascarella, E. T., & Beal, P. (1982). Designing Retention Interventions and Verifying Their Effectiveness. In E. Pascarella & M. Peterson (Eds.), Studying Student Attrition by New Directions for Institutional Research, 36, (pp. 73-88). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Pascarella, E. T., & Terenzini, P. T. (1991). How College Affects Students. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Peng, S. S. (1982). Hispanic Students in American High Schools: Background Characteristics and Achievement. (Report No. 065-000-0135-7). Washington DC: National Center for Education Statistics. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 220 259)

Piderit, J. J., S.J. (1994, April). From Small Steps to Great Strides: Loyola's 22nd President Talks about Change and Tradition. Loyola World, 13 (7), p. 6.

Pitsch, M. (1991, March). Texas Project Spurs Poor Hispanic Youths to Gear for College. Education Week, 10 (26), 1-15.

Poole, S. W. (1989). Predicting Academic Success in College for Students from Disadvantaged Backgrounds Using Locus-of-Control, Self-Concept and Selected Standards Data (Doctoral dissertation, Seton Hall University, School of Education, New Jersey, 1989). Dissertation Abstracts International, 50, 12A, p. 3864.

Quevedo-Garcia, E. (1987). Facilitating the Development of Hispanic College Students. In D. Wright (Eds), Responding to the Needs of Today's Minority Students: New Directions for Student Services, 38, (pp. 49-63). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Rabow, J., & Rodriguez, K. A. (1993, August). Socialization Toward Money in Latino Families: An Exploratory Study of Gender Differences. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 15 (3), 324-341.

Ramirez, M. (1980). A Neighborhood-Based, Culture-Responsive Mental Health Model for Mexican American Children and Adolecents. Unpublished manuscript.

Ramirez, M. (1983). Psychology of the Americas: Mestizo Perspectives on Personality and Mental Health. New York: Pergamon Press.

Ramirez, M. (1984). Assessing and Understanding Biculturalism-Multiculturalism in Mexican-American Adults. In J. R. Martinez & R. Mendoza, Chicano Psychology, (pp.77-94). New York: Academic.

Ramirez, M. (1986). Retention of the Latin University Student: The Case of California State University Long Beach (CSULB). (Report No.MF01/PC03). Geographic Source: California. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 279482)

Ramirez, M., & Castaneda, A. (1974). Cultural Democracy, Bicognitive Development, and Education. New York: Academic.

Ramirez, M., Castaneda, A., & Cox, B. G. (1977). A Biculturalism Inventory for Mexican American College Students. Unpublished manuscript, University of California, Santa Cruz.

Ramirez, M. Diaz-Guerrero, R., Hernandez, M. & Iscoe, I. (1982). Coping with Life Stress in Families: A Cross Cultural Comparison. Unpublished manuscript.

Ramirez, M., Garza, R. T., & Cox, B. G. (1980, March). Multicultural Leader Behaviors in Ethnically mixed Task Groups (Technical Report). Office of Naval Research: Organizational Effectiveness Research Program.

Ravich, D. (1990). Multiculturalism: E Pluribus Plures. Key Reporter, 56 (1), 1-4.

Rendon, Laura I. (1989, May). The Lie and the Hope: Making Higher Education a Reality for At-Risk Students. American Association For Higher Education Bulletin, 41 (9), 4-7.

Rendon, L. & Nora, A. (1987, Fall/Winter). Hispanic Students: Stopping the Leaks in the Pipeline. Educational Record, 68/69 (4/1), 79-85.

Richardson, R. C. (1989). Institutional Climate and Minority Achievement. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.

Richardson, R. (1992, April). Reclaiming the Public Trust: A Research Agenda to Explore the Validity of the Criticisms. Paper presented at the 1992 AAHE National Conference, Chicago, IL.

Richardson, R. C. Jr., & Bender, L. W. (1992, Spring). Fostering Minority Access and Achievement In Higher Education. Harvard Educational Review, 62 (1), 79-87.

Rivera, E. (1982). Family Installments: Memories of Growing up Hispanic. New York: Williams and Morrow.

Rodriguez, C. E., Sanchez-Korrol, V., & Alers, J. O. (1980). The Puerto Rican Struggle: Essays on Survival. New York: Puerto Rican Migration Research Consortium.

Rodriquez, R. (1989). An Empirical Examination of Hispanic-Americans in a University Setting and the Influence on Their Attitudes Towards Assimilation (Masters thesis, Western Michigan University, 1989). Masters Abstracts International, 28, 03, p. 371.

Ronda, M. A., Valencia, R. R. (1994). "At-Risk" Chicano Students: The Institutional and Communicative Life of a Category. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 16 (4), 363-395.

Rowe, D. W. (1994). Preschoolers as Authors: Literacy Learning in the Social World of the Classroom. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton.

Sewell, W., Hauser, R., & Wolf, W. (1980). Sex, Schooling, and Occupational Status. American Journal of Sociology, 86, 551-583.

Sherif, C. W. (1982). Needed Concepts in the Study of Gender Identity. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 6 (4), 375-398.

Smith, D. G. (1989). The Challenge of Diversity: Involvement or Alienation in the Academy? ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 5. (Monograph). Washington D.C: George Washington University Press.

Solberg, V. S., Valdez, J., & Villarreal, P. (1994, August). Social Support, Stress, and Hispanic College Adjustment: Test of a Diathesis-Stress Model. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences. 16 (3), 230-239.

Solomon, L. C. (1975, Fall). The Definition of College Quality and Its Impact on Earning. Explorations in Economic Research, 537-87.

Solomon, L. C. & Banks, D. (1988, April). The Future of Higher Education in the US. Paper prepared for the Ford Foundation Symposium on Demographics, New York, New York.

Soto, E., & Shaver, P. (1982). Sex-Role Traditionalism, Assertiveness, and Symptoms of Puerto Rican Women Living in the United States. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, (4), 1-19.

State of Illinois, Board of Education. (1992). Data Book on Illinois Higher Education. Springfield, IL: Illinois State.

Stonequist, E. (1937). The Marginal Man: A Study in Personality and Culture Conflict. New York: Charles Scribner's.

Summer STEP Program Helps Minority High School Students. (1994, July 13). Chicago Tribune, p. A4.

Taylor, C. A. (1985). Effective Ways to Recruit and Retain Minority Students. Madison, WI: National Minority Campus Chronicle.

Tinto, V. (1975). Drop-out from Higher Education: A Theoretical Systhesis of Recent Research. Review of Educational Research, 15 (1), 89-125.

Tinto, V. (1987). Leaving College: Rethinking the Causes and Cures of Student Attrition. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago.

Tinto, V. (1990, May). New Questions: Turning Practice into Theory and Back Again. Keynote Speaker at a Retention Conference, University of Illinois, Chicago, IL.

Trueba, H. T. (1989). Educating the Linguistic Minorities for the 21st Century. Cambridge: Newbury House.

Turner, C. S. (1994). Guests in Someone Else's House: Students of Color. Review of Higher Education, 17 (4), 355-370.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (1990). Enrollment Trends. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports. (1990). Series P-20, No. 444. The Hispanic Population in the United States. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports. (1991, March). Series P-20, No. 455. The Hispanic Population in the United States. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. (1991). Population Trends and Congressional Appointment. 1990 Census Profile No. 1.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. (1993). Hispanic Americans Today (Current Population Reports p23-183). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Valdivieso, R., & Davis, C. (1988). U.S. Hispanics: Challenging Issues for the 1990's. Population Trends and Public Policy. 17, Washington, DC: Population Reference Bureau.

Vasquez, M. J. T. (1978). Chicana and Anglo University Women: Factors Relating to their Performance, Persistence and Attrition. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas, 1978).

Vasquez, M. J. T., & Gonzalez, A. M. (1981). Sex-Roles Among Chicanos: Stereotypes, Challenges and Changes. In A. Baron (Ed.), Explorations in Chicano Psychology, (pp. 50-70). New York: Praeger.

Vasquez, M. J. T. (1984). Power and Status of the Chicana: A Social-Psychological Perspective. In J. L. Martinez, Jr. (Ed)., Chicano Psychology, 14, (pp.269- 287). Orlando, Florida: Academic Press.

Villa, V. (1994, April). The Changing Face of American Education. Hispanic Association of Colleges and Universities (HACU), 2 (2) p. 4.

Vining-Brown, S. (1987). Minorities in the Graduate Education Pipeline. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service, Minority Graduate Education Project.

Vining-Brown, S. (1994). The Impasse on Faculty Diversity in Higher Education: A National Agenda. In M. J. Justiz, R. Wilson, & L. G. Bjork (Eds.), Minorities in Higher Education (pp. 314-333). Phoenix, Arizona: Oryx.

Voorhees, R. A. (1985). Financial Aid and Persistence: Do the Federal Campus-Based Aid Programs Make a Difference? Journal of Student Financial Aid, 15, 21-30.

Walleri, R. D., & Peglow-Hoch, M. (1988, May). Case Studies of Non-Traditional High Risk Students: Does Social and Academic Integration Apply? (Report No. MF01/PC01). Phoenix: AZ. Association for Institutional Research. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 298-861)

Weaver, C. J. (1989). The Relationship of College Students' Achievement Motivation to Family Cohesion and Aspirations: An Analysis by Race and Gender. (University of Maryland College Park). Dissertation Abstracts International, A 50/07 p. 1965, Jan. 1990. (University Microfilms, Inc. AAC 8924248).

Western Interstate Commission For Higher Education and the College Board. (1991, July). The Road to College: Educational Progress by Race and Ethnicity. Boulder, CO: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE).

Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE). (1993, October). High School Graduates: Projections by State 1992-2009. Colorado: Teachers Insurance & Annuity Association, the College Board, and WICHE.

Wilson, R., & Malendez, S. (1984). The Status of Minorities in Higher Education. Washington, DC: American Council on Education, Office of Minority Concern.

Wilson, R. & Justiz, M. (1987 Fall/Winter). Minorities in Higher Education: Confronting a Time Bomb. Educational Record, 9-13.

VITA

Lynn Ann (Van Hoof) Werner is the daughter of Gerard H. Van Hoof and Virginia M. Kline-Van Hoof. She was born in Appleton, Wisconsin on November 15, 1941. She is the oldest of five daughters. She received her Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) degree in Family and Consumer Science Education, in 1981 from Mundelein College Chicago. She received her Master of Education (M.Ed.) degree in Administration and Supervision in January 1988, from Loyola University Chicago, along with her Type 75 Certification in Administration. She entered the Doctoral Program in Higher Education, fall 1988 at Loyola University Chicago. She completed her internship at The College of DuPage during the 1990-91 school year, working under the Provost of the College, Dr. Carol Viola, in the Business and Professional Institute.

She has taught for over ten years at both private and public institutions. She was Chairperson of the Family and Consumer Science Department at Madonna High School (1982-83); Department Coordinator and Acting Director in the Fashion Merchandising Department at Ray College of Design, (1983-87), while pursuing her Masters in Education degree. She taught at Evanston-Township High School in the Home Economics Department (1987-88), before entering the Doctoral program at Loyola. She also was an adjunct faculty member at the College of DuPage and Ray College of Design, while pursuing her doctoral courses. She is currently serving as a

member of the Board of Trustees at Ray College of Design. She is an active board member both nationally and locally of the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences. She is the President and Owner of Studio Specialties Ltd., a Visual Merchandising and Display Company, and Superior Fomebords Corporation, a Distributor of Graphic Art Boards, both located in Chicago.

Lynn is currently working on the development of a curriculum in Visual Merchandising for a one year certificate program for students with a bachelor's degree to expand their skill level in the visual area for greater job enhancement.

APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Lynn Ann (Van Hoof) Werner has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Terry E. Williams, Director
Associate Professor, Educational Leadership and Policy Studies
Loyola University Chicago

Dr. Philip M. Carlin
Associate Professor, Educational Leadership and Policy Studies
Loyola University Chicago

Dr. Rafaela Weffer
Associate Professor, School of Education
DePaul University Chicago

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation in now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

April 4, 1995 — Date

Terry E. Williams — Director's Signature